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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 17, 1904.

The Week.

A delicate task has been laid upon the House committee which must investigate the "charges against members" in connection with the postal scandals. From the debates thus far, it is evident that the thing for which most Representatives are eager is a general whitewashing. The majority has steadily opposed anything like a complete overhauling of the Department, such as the minority urges. There is a singular tenderness, also, in dealing with the railway mail service, in which so many large corporations are interested. To irritate the railways just before a Presidential year would—from the point of view of a collector of campaign funds—be most unwise. And yet the Republican leaders should remember that the man who saved their bacon when charges were first published was not the Postmaster-General, who talked of "hot air" and who was inclined to pass lightly over the matter, but President Roosevelt, who courageously gave orders to drive the knife up to the hilt. As a result, people believe that, however rotten some of the departments may be, the President will do his utmost to hunt rascals out and make his Administration honest. Of course, an investigation dragging through the campaign would keep before voters the corruption which has developed under Republican rule; but, on the other hand, the Democrats may be trusted to make all possible capital out of any suppression or half-hearted search. The only safety now is an application of Strafford's vigorous policy of Thorough, which President Roosevelt declares he has adopted as his own.

According to Senator Dick and Gov. Herrick of Ohio, President Roosevelt has been guilty of blasphemy in bestowing patronage on the late Senator Hanna's enemy, Foraker. The two legatees of the Hanna machine have issued a bull of excommunication against Foraker and all his friends; have declared them heretics from the true faith, have called down upon their heads the curses of the Republican gods, and have forbidden all devout members of the party speaking with them, trading votes with them, or extending any aid or comfort, no matter how grave the peril, how extreme the pain of this band of outlaws. So horrible has been Senator Foraker's crime that we hesitate to soil our pages by mentioning it. He has not proposed to reduce the tariff, for a man can do that and yet hold the respect of orthodox Republicans; he has not plotted against Roosevelt's renomination, for some of the holiest fathers of the organization have been dubious about the validity of the Roosevelt dogma. But he has dared to oppose the Hanna machine. This is the unpardonable sin, which cuts a man off from the joys of this life and from salvation in the next.

The testimony in the Smoot case shows the highest authorities of the Mormon Church defiant of law, disloyal to their official pledges, and tricky and intriguing in their political activities. What most deeply outrages public sentiment is the perception that Mormonism still means polygamy; that it continues to stand for a system which means the degradation of woman and the ruin of civilization. Probably the hundreds of thousands of Christian women who petitioned the Senate to go behind Mr. Smoot's credentials, had no definite idea of the evidence that would be produced, but they were moved by a sure instinct. They were stirred not alone by impulsive self-defence, but by the perception that Mormonism and purity are contradictory terms, and that polygamy is an attempt to upset society and turn evolution backward. We cannot say that a case has yet been made out for Senator Smoot's expulsion. Legally, his position is stronger than it is morally. Still, the Senate is final judge of the qualifications of its own members. If it chooses, it may say that Mr. Smoot's associations and entanglements are such that it is not fitting for him to sit in the Senate of the United States.

Judge Alton B. Parker is not fortunate in his friends. As if the support of David Bennett Hill were not enough to alienate from him the independent vote, Edward Murphy, jr., of Troy now appears among the faithful. The two chief backers of Judge Parker in his own State are therefore Hill and the notorious Murphy. If the Parker boom can thrive in spite of such a blight, it must be a plant of hardy growth. Hill has been for twenty years the shining example of a political wrecker. He did his best to crush the Cleveland Democrats and drive them from the organization. There is no living American who more closely answers to Bagehot's description of a leader devoid of principle: he "regards politics as a game to be played first for himself and then for his party; he does not act contrary to his opinion, but he does not care to form a true opinion." A union of Murphy and Hill might almost be called a union of Herod and Pilate, for Murphy has been the chief of the Rensselaer County bandits who dragged Troy politics down to the level of highway robbery. His heelers hesitated at no crime, not even murder itself. Grover Cleveland was loved for the enemies he made; Judge Parker may come to be hated for the friends he has made.

It is a little odd to read of the Associated Press congratulations on having induced the Czar to remove the censorship in Russia, at the very moment that this same news-gathering association declines at home to disseminate information of the highest significance. It refused to send out the news of the organization of the "Philippine Independence Committee." Yet the names of the gentlemen composing it are of such weight and distinction that anything they are united in advocating acquires thereby news-value. If President Eliot makes an address on labor at Boston, or writes of the government of Bar Harbor, the fact is immediately put on the wires; but when he and eight other college presidents, together with eminent clergymen, authors, and publicists, have something to say about Philippine independence, it immediately becomes of no consequence, and the news is "killed." Why, if those men were on a committee simply to dig a ditch, the fact would be eagerly published by every real newspaper in the land! If the formation of a powerful "Philippine Independence Committee" is not news, then nothing is news. The upshot is to leave the Associated Press, by this refusal, in a kind of head-in-the-sand attitude, while the news gets circulated just the same.

"The old order changeth," quoted the Emporia *Gazette*, referring to E. W. Hoch, who was on Wednesday week nominated for Governor by the Republicans of Kansas. A year ago the Republican machine of that State, under the direction of Gov. Bailey and Cyrus Leland, a former National Committeeman, was running without a hint of creaking. Hoch, the proprietor of a small country newspaper published weekly, who in editorial sermons consistently demanded clean politics, set out to become State Printer at the time a vacancy in that office occurred. It suited the machine to appear to favor his candidacy, but, when the vote was taken in the Legislature, those who had promised to support Hoch turned to another man. It was, of course, no part of the machine's plan to share "pie" with a preacher who railed against the Topeka organization's methods. But when it was found by Gov. Bailey's opponents that his hold on the party was insecure, Hoch's earnest denunciations were recalled, and it was suggested that he would do admir-

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ably as a leader of a revolt. In the "short-grass country" a movement founded on moral awakening spreads rapidly, if at all. A few months after the country editor received the first bundle of telegrams, as he was setting type for the week's edition of the Marion *Record*, he was nominated to succeed Gov. Bailey. The smashing of the machine proved to be no Herculean job, and in the next two years Kansas is likely to learn what a "strong, clean Governor," to adopt William Allen White's characterization, can make of his independence.

The course of the lynchers at Springfield, O., who on March 7 shot a negro murderer to death and on Tuesday set fire to the disreputable negro quarter, illustrates clearly what may happen in any community the instant the laws are defied. Bishops may approve, editors may palliate, and newspapers allege extenuating circumstances; but the fact remains that when the mob is once given its head, no one can tell to what excesses its bestial passions may carry it, or to what extremes its fury may drive it. This is entirely irrespective of local considerations. The burning of Springfield's negro quarter is on all-fours with the destruction of an Alabama town by its own citizens, who were bent on destroying a negro, together with the calaboose in which he was confined. Gov. Herrick of Ohio has notified the local authorities at Springfield that the Attorney-General will take charge of the prosecution of the lynchers if the local machinery of the law is not put into motion at once. He has also shown commendable firmness in ordering the troops to remain in Springfield as long as there is the slightest necessity for their presence or possibility of further trouble. As a result of the Governor's attitude, the County Prosecutor has awakened to the fact that he has a solemn duty to perform, and has promised to convene a grand jury without loss of time.

In a letter to a negro minister of Baltimore, Cardinal Gibbons has again shown himself a wise and far-seeing prelate. Writing of the "Jim-Crow" bills now before the Maryland Legislature, the Cardinal expresses his strong opposition to them and to the spirit actuating them, rightly pointing out that peace and harmony are impossible where such unjust discrimination prevails. To make a whole race suffer for the delinquencies of a few individuals he considers preposterous; and he adds that it is the duty of every member of a community to avoid any action calculated to create bad feeling and to embitter the lot of the less fortunate race. But this danger of racial hatreds, far deeper and more serious than any hitherto existing, is precisely what a cheap politician of the Vardaman, Tillman, and Gorman type does not think about. He is concerned only with his own personal advantage. Still others, like Congressman Hardwick of Georgia, calmly assume that our colored citizens, having been put in the inferior social, industrial, and political status he considers their due, will make no effort to better themselves. There is nothing further from the truth. The negro race is rising, and rising rapidly, and there is but one way that it can be kept down—by slavery or force of arms. Meanwhile, the words of Cardinal Gibbons, that peace and harmony cannot prevail where there is discrimination, constitute a solemn warning.

Two events have occurred lately that throw an interesting light on the immigration question. Signor Rossi of the Royal Emigration Department of Italy is in this country, and has written a long letter to the president of the Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants. He says that, far from looking with favor on emigration, his Government makes a strong effort to prevent it. The heavy movement away from Italy in the past, he alleges, was chiefly encouraged by the transportation companies, whose only interest in the matter was, of course, the sale of steamship tickets. In line with this information are the recent arrivals in this country of large numbers of young and vigorous Russians, who are said to have left their native land very hurriedly to escape conscription. These emigrants tell interesting stories of how they managed to get by the Russian sentries in crossing the Prussian frontier. They seem to agree on the fact that their success was chiefly due to the efforts of transportation agents. According to one immigrant, the steamship runner who took their money not only gave them their tickets, but also made the deal with the sentries. These instances bring to mind the great success of American railroads in the past in stimulating and directing large movements of population from one region to another. No doubt the efforts of the transportation companies often lead to a purely artificial distribution of the excess population of the world, but natural law soon corrects mistakes of this sort.

The statement that the American Locomotive Company has bought a plant in Canada should be read in connection with Mr. Balfour's announcement in Parliament that no tax will be levied upon food. It will be recalled that Mr. Chamberlain was previously as emphatic in asserting that no duties would be placed on raw materials. But where does this leave the colonies? If Mr. Balfour is to be taken literally, there will be no tax on wheat, or flour, or corn, or other cereals; neither will meat nor animal products be made to pay duty. But a tax on breadstuffs, with colonial preference, was going to do such wonderful things for Australia! And if no duty is ever to be put on animal products, how is New Zealand going to obtain that preference which was to curtail the imports into the United Kingdom of Argentine mutton? Indeed, what is to prevent our sending just as much wheat and bacon to Great Britain as formerly? But, in that case, where would Canada's preference come in? As the bulk of what the colonies send the mother country is food or raw materials, it is hard to see what there is left in the fiscal reform for them. But note: Canada does some manufacturing, on which she may be able to obtain a preference. Yet in this connection it must be remembered that the American Locomotive Company is not the only American enterprise that has acquired a Canadian plant for export purposes.

On the railway issues, Sir Wilfrid Laurier lost his ablest Minister, Mr. Blair, and on the same issue he is likely to have serious adversity in the future. Last July the Government concluded an agreement with the Grand Trunk Railway for a transcontinental line north of all existing roads. The contract lapsed, partly through the attempt of the Grand Trunk to make the legal deposits in unauthorized securities—a measure that was the subject of just criticism. Now the Ministry has renewed the agreement on terms much more favorable to the company. In general, financial safeguards have been removed. By a simple transfer of rolling stock from the eastern to the western branch, the Grand Trunk may regain its $5,000,000 deposit; the time of construction is extended from December 1, 1908, to the same day, 1911, with strikes now reckoned as "unavoidable causes of delay"; the Government underwriting of the mountain branch is increased from $30,000 a mile to three-quarters of the actual cost. Evidently either the Grand Trunk was bargaining to its own hurt last summer, which nobody believes, or it is now bargaining very much at the expense of the Dominion. When the case is fully understood—and the Conservative press is not slack in the duty of interpretation—it is very likely that recent Liberal losses in bye-elections in Quebec and the Maritime Provinces will prove merely the precursors of more positive disaster.

Whatever may be the merits of municipal trading, there is a strong belief in Great Britain that the movement has progressed too rapidly. The manager of Lloyd's Bank in London spoke very emphatically on this subject at the recent annual meeting of that institution. He said that the debts of British mu-

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nicipalities had been increasing by leaps and bounds during the last ten years, and now amounted to £350,000,000—half the national debt. The money had often been spent in municipal trading. The extravagance, he added, has been so great that the money market is now practically closed against the municipalities, it being impossible for them to borrow except at usurious rates. Indeed, it is asserted that, in order to raise cash, they have done a sort of banking business themselves, and have received money on deposit. The manager of Lloyd's Bank regretted the liberality of the bankers to the municipalities in the past, especially in view of the last-mentioned fact. It looks, indeed, as if the cities and towns of the United Kingdom had been doing about what the industrial enterprises in the United States were doing for some years after 1898—namely, converting floating capital into fixed capital altogether too fast. This fact has no doubt had a good deal to do with forcing British consols to their present low figure, just as the locking up of funds in this country caused the highest-priced securities to sell at a great reduction.

Short of defeat, a Parliamentary leader has rarely been so cavalierly handled as Mr. Balfour was on March 9 by his own supporters. Mr. Austen Chamberlain's advocacy of his father's fiscal scheme had given occasion for a motion of censure by the Liberals. In the course of the debate Mr. Balfour stood firmly on the principles of his Sheffield speech—declared himself opposed to all food taxes and devoted to retaliation. He was willing that Unionist members, in their private capacity, should believe in the whole Chamberlain policy, but he expected them to support the Government on the half-policy. To make the matter clear, a counter resolution was moved, which approved the Balfour plan. But soon it was evident that liberty of opinion on fiscal matters was permitted to all members of the party except the chief. The Chamberlainites declined absolutely to vote for a resolution declaring protection and food taxes to be no part of the Government plan, and the motion of confidence was hastily withdrawn. In the face of a refusal to vote confidence in the Government, the defeat of a motion of censure by a small majority was an empty triumph. The debate revealed very clearly the fact that, though a Balfour Ministry still rules, there are practically no Balfourites on the benches. Mr. Balfour has absolutely no secure majority. On several occasions lately a full attendance of Liberals and Nationalists would have turned out the Ministry. In fact, on Tuesday last, by a trick of Mr. Redmond's, it was actually beaten. Under these circumstances, a dissolution should logically follow the passing of the supply bills.

The Government bill suppressing all primary schools conducted by the religious orders of France was advanced to the committee stage on March 7. M. Combes reiterated his famous thesis—the incompatibility of Roman Catholic teaching with a free state—and estimated the cost of replacing the church schools at $13,600,000. This figure includes only buildings and equipment; an enormous amount in addition must be paid for salaries and maintenance. Creditable estimates set this sum at about $16,000,000 annually. It seems likely, then, that the Ministry will soon be in serious budgetary difficulties. M. Rouvier is already sorely taxed to arrange for current conversions of the national debt, and the covering of the deficit. Nobody can doubt, however, that M. Combes will carry his anti-clerical campaign to the bitter end. If he should be shipwrecked en route, as many are predicting, he would have the satisfaction of having held his tiller true. But he has precipitated a conflict which seemed by no means inevitable and must profoundly disturb the present social order of France.

Thirty-two years after the expulsion of the Jesuits from Germany, Bismarck's successor gives them anew the freedom of the Empire. That is the heavy price which Bülow pays for the support of the Centre. Without the 105 Clerical votes the Government's composite majority would disappear. Other reasons have helped to bring about this complete surrender. The protectorate of the Holy Sepulchre is undoubtedly one of the Kaiser's dearest ambitions. It would give a spiritual sanction to his large political and commercial pretensions in the Levant. Meanwhile, Premier Combes's uncompromising battle with the Church gives Germany every opportunity to substitute herself as the friend of the Vatican, as the ally both of the White and the Black Pope. Very likely these considerations of foreign policy have done much to reconcile old Bismarckians to what would otherwise be a most humiliating retreat. Besides the immediate handicap of being tied to the Clerical reaction, Germany faces a peculiarly ironical situation. She stands to-day precisely where she did before the *Kulturkampf*. Bismarck's great fight against the Church has gone for nothing, and is all to do over again. Canossa has been revisited.

The official announcement of the need of additional reinforcements for German Southwest Africa must have had a chilling effect upon the Reichstag on Monday. The demand for 800 cavalry and two mounted batteries of artillery shows that the situation is much worse than has been admitted in official quarters. Dr. Stuebel, the director of the Colonial Office, was forced to confess that there are still 5,000 Hereros in the field, and that they are well armed and well intrenched. This, together with the news, from private sources, of considerable sickness and mortality among the German reinforcements which have just arrived in the disputed territory, has given the public little cause for satisfaction with the situation, especially as the Governor of the colony has displayed marked incapacity for his place. The Social-Democrats have already served notice that they will oppose any further voting of men and supplies for Southwest Africa, and a lively debate is therefore in prospect. There is material enough for some very sharp attacks upon the Government. Col. Leutwein, the crazy governor of the Cameroons, who recently brought about a revolution because of a stolen lamp, is a shining mark, as well as Prince Arenberg, who has just been released from jail because of his alleged insanity when he committed the horrible crimes for which he was imprisoned.

M. Kokovseff, the head of the Russian Ministry of Finance, has evolved some queer ideas regarding the war expenditure. The cost of the war, he says, must not be compared with that of the South African conflict. It would be an exaggeration, he continues, to say that the war would entail a gross expenditure amounting to a quarter of the net cost of the Transvaal operations. That, of course, is pure guesswork, as no one has any real knowledge what the struggle in the East is going to cost. But, waiving that, what reason has M. Kokovseff for saying that the money spent by Russia will not be, as it was in the case of Great Britain, a dead loss? Most of it, he affirms, will return to the public chest. But will it? The cost of the transport of the troops will be paid to the State railways. True; but will it offset the loss to the State from the lessened volume of merchandise business? The Asiatic railroads owned by Russia are believed not to have been earning their running expenses, and charging up the transportation of troops to earnings is, after all, merely a ridiculous form of bookkeeping. It reminds one of the way the railroads of this country used to swell their earning statements by reckoning in the freights on their own construction materials. The present war simply means the destruction of capital which might have been devoted to productive ends, and it makes little difference, in the long run, whether this wealth is wiped out on domestic or on foreign soil. In this case a great deal of it will be used up in eastern Asia, in paying the troops and in the purchase of supplies. Large amounts will also go to Western Europe for supplies and services, and some will come to the United States.

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THE MERGER DECISION.

The judgment of the Supreme Court in the Northern Securities suit, in so far as it is contained in Justice Harlan's opinion, is undoubtedly very sweeping. It clearly declares that the Sherman Act "is not limited to restraints of interstate and international trade or commerce that are unreasonable in their nature, but is directed against all direct restraints, reasonable or unreasonable, imposed by any combination, conspiracy, or monopoly upon such trade or commerce"; that "combinations, even among private manufacturers or dealers, whereby interstate or international commerce is restrained, are equally embraced by the Act," and it further sets forth that "the mere existence of such a combination and the power acquired by the holding company as trustee for the combination constitute a menace to, and restraint upon, that freedom of commerce which Congress intended to recognize and protect, and which the public is entitled to have protected." More particularly, Justice Harlan's opinion is that the Circuit Court's decision on the Northern Securities merger could not properly have been of smaller scope than it was.

That judgment was, that competition was annihilated when two previously competing railways were acquired by a common owner; that "every one is presumed to intend what is the necessary consequence of his own acts, when done wilfully and deliberately"; and, therefore, that acquisition of the Great Northern and Northern Pacific by a joint owner, which "destroyed every motive for competition" between two "natural competitors for business," was a restraint of trade within the meaning of the Act. This, it is true, was no new judicial reading of the Act of 1890; the principle had been even more cogently asserted by the Supreme Court itself in the "Trans-Missouri case" of 1897. The association so designated, formed for the purpose of fixing uniform rates on the railways in its membership, was dissolved by the court on the explicit ground that "the necessary effect of the agreement is to restrain trade or commerce, no matter what the intent was on the part of those who signed it."

The point naturally arises, in studying Justice Harlan's opinion, as to what limit can with assurance be set to the application of the law. The lawyer's criticism is, that so unrestricted a judgment may open up avenues of indefinite litigation, pending which a disturbing uncertainty might prevail in the community. But it is important to observe that Justice Harlan's opinion did not, strictly speaking, speak for the majority of the court. The case against the Securities Company was decided by a vote of 5 to 4; but Justice Brewer, though concurring with the majority in their judgment as to the case in court, dissents from some of the principles set forth by his colleague. This means that the court's majority opinion, in other cases involving the same principles, may quite possibly be regulated rather by Justice Brewer's reasoning than by Justice Harlan's. Justice Brewer limits with much conservatism the application of the Act. Explaining his dissent, he observes:

> "Instead of holding that the Anti-Trust Act included all contracts, reasonable or unreasonable, in restraint of interstate trade, the ruling should have been that the contracts there present were in themselves unreasonable restraints of interstate trade and, therefore, within the scope of the Act. Congress did not intend by that Act to reach and destroy those minor contracts in partial restraint of trade which the long course of decisions at common law had affirmed were reasonable and ought to be upheld. . . . Wherever a departure from common-law rules and definitions is claimed, the purpose to make the departure should be clearly shown."

Certainly, there is nothing alarming or unsettling in this construction of the law; it proceeds on the cautious lines to which the Attorney-General, in his Pittsburgh speech of October, 1902, drew attention, and in fact applies in its interpretation of existing law pretty much all the limitations suggested by the recent Foraker amendment.

While, therefore, by no means endorsing Justice White's intimation, in his minority opinion, that the power asserted "is repugnant to all the fundamental rights of life, liberty, and property, upon which all just government must rest," it is clear that Justice Brewer, in a case involving what was, in the court's mind, a reasonable contract, would stand with the present minority. In other words, there is ground for assuming that such cases as hereafter may come before the court, under the Act of 1890, will be judged on their individual merits rather than on any sweeping generalization.

Both Justice Harlan and Justice Brewer touched, in their opinions, on the argument which, in our own mind, has more than any other served to induce adverse conclusions regarding the Northern merger. The question where this control of competing properties by merger was to end, if not restrained by law, has been the vital question of the whole debate. To it the court reverts, in its final pronouncement, as the public has done many times in the interval. Justice Brewer sums up this phase of the situation clearly:

> "If the parties interested in these two railroads can, through the instrumentality of a holding corporation, place both under one control, then in like manner, as was conceded on the argument by one of the counsel appellants, could the control of all the railroad companies in the country be placed in a single corporation. . . . The holders of $200,000,000 of stock in the Northern Securities Company might organize another corporation to hold their stock in that company; and the new corporation holding the majority of the stock in the Northern Securities Company, and acting in obedience to the wishes of a majority of its stockholders, would control the action of the Securities Company, . . . and this process might be extended until a single corporation whose stock was owned by three or four parties would be in practical control of both roads, or (having before us the possibilities of combination) in control of the whole transportation of the country."

THE CAUSE OF POSTAL SCANDALS.

The man who persists in skating on thin ice will fall through. This is the elementary but valuable lesson which Congress has learned in the last few days. In besieging the Executive departments for favors, in using their influence to procure from "My dear Beavers" extra allowances for which there was no warrant in the business of local offices, Senators and Representatives have been meddling with matters that did not belong to them. Some of them must have known that the money for additional clerkships and higher rents was virtually stolen; but so long as Beavers and Machen would assume nominal responsibility, the legislators cheerfully met the demands for larger departmental appropriations and asked no questions. "Saving" doubtful districts is expensive, but most Congressman seem to prefer it to saving the income of the Government. There are, of course, many members who have joined the scramble simply because they could not resist the force of a bad example. Instead of letting a postmaster's application stand on its bare merits, they have wanted to show zeal for their constituents by overturning heaven and earth. They may not have intended to be dishonest; they have protested that they begged for nothing more than was due; but, none the less, they entered the broad and easy path that leads straight to corruption.

The root of the trouble strikes deeper than this Congress or the present condition of politics; it penetrates the very framework of our Constitution. Nominally, the Executive and the Legislature are independent—one a check upon the other. Actually, the filaments of the two departments interlace in a tangled plexus. The President has power to choose executive officers, though certain appointments must be confirmed by the Senate. Inevitably, the Senators have seized these latter offices, and, by a union offensive and defensive, have largely usurped executive authority. Only a day or two ago the dispatches announced that in two Ohio towns "Hanna" postmasters had been replaced by "Foraker" adherents, because the President discovered that these offices "belonged" to Senator Foraker. In short, the Senators look upon patronage and appropriations as property which they hold in fee simple, to be distributed among faithful retainers according to desert.

The greedy hand of the legislator has also grasped offices which are not subject to confirmation. A President can-

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not know all of his appointees—he must rely upon the advice of people of the vicinage; and the men who get his ear with least difficulty are Senators and Representatives. Even were they disinclined to traffic in patronage, they could hardly help becoming office-brokers. When, as is usually the case, they are vitally interested in building up their small machines, they are sure to make office-hunting their chief occupation. Once they have a department well garrisoned with their vassals, they can and do exact concessions which are downright illegal. The hapless clerk or bureau chief sees that if he balks he becomes *persona non grata*, and a more complaisant official may succeed him. He is also aware that his stretching or actual breaking of the law, so far from weakening his hold upon Congress, strengthens it. His line of least resistance is that which the genial and accommodating Beavers followed. He good-naturedly yields on the point of allowances, and looks to the Senate and House for corresponding hospitality toward his demands for swollen appropriations or a higher salary for himself. Thus a new feudalism has grown up which was never contemplated by the fathers of the republic, but which has nevertheless been the logical fruit of the Constitution which they bequeathed us. Moreover, the Executive and the Legislature are knit together by reciprocity treaties that can never be broken; and, instead of restraining, they encourage each other in extravagance. Selfish human nature, which the devisers of our Constitution threw out of the door, has sneaked back through the window.

This unhappy tendency to obliterate the line between Legislative and Executive, to destroy salutary checks and balances, is reinforced by our system of having each Representative a resident of the State, and practically of the district, which elects him. John Morley may be returned for a constituency in Scotland or Wales, wherever there is a Liberal majority; but if Speaker Cannon's district happens to be either gerrymandered or swept by a Democratic tidal wave, he steps down and out. The result is that our national legislator is prone to take the parochial view of a county supervisor, to approach the tariff law as if it were an ordinance for a hundred yards of sewer. Foreign publicists have often censured this plan, by which we either rob ourselves of the services of our ablest men, or else restrict their horizon and narrow their energy to the oiling and feeding of a provincial machine. Bryce, in his 'American Commonwealth,' dwells at length on the fact that a Congressman is forced into "procuring, if he can, grants from the Federal Treasury for local purposes, and places for the relatives and friends of local wire-pullers who control the nominating conventions," and also into "nursing the constituency during the vacation." "No habit," adds Bryce, "could more effectually discourage noble ambition or check the growth of a class of accomplished statesmen." The freshest contribution to this discussion is in the late Henry Villard's account of a visit to Bismarck, extracted from his Memoirs for the March *Century*. The architect of German nationality declared that the restriction of residence "tended to develop champions of local instead of national interests," while in England and Germany "the élite of the nation" was drafted into the parliamentary ranks.

Our legislators, then, are partly victims of circumstance, each crushed by the wheels of his own little Juggernaut. But some of them are also men whose souls have atrophied in the course of long years of haggling in the marketplace. At first they have abhorred the vices of the "profane herd of vulgar and mechanical politicians"; then have assumed an attitude of cynical tolerance; and, finally, on the theory that inflexible virtue is political suicide, they have gone the way of all flesh. It is now evident that they themselves have laid the train for the explosion which has shaken Congress. The intriguing and peculation simply reached a point where concealment was no longer possible; and the men who have sacrificed great opportunities to trivial and sordid ends are, by a sudden stroke of fate, stripped of their pompous masks, and revealed to the world, feeble, chattering, quaking wretches. If the shock shall quicken a few consciences, shall warn our lawmakers and administrators that, consciously or unconsciously, they have been heading for the City of Destruction, the republic at least will suffer no harm.

UNKNOWN QUANTITIES.

"Cleveland is strong at the very points where strength is needed. No other man would make as good a fight in Illinois or Wisconsin. He would get more votes, we believe, in Indiana than Gorman or Olney would. Possibly Parker, as an unknown quantity, would do better here, though this is by no means sure."

These remarks of the Indianapolis *News* deserve attention for their apparent intimation that Parker might prove a strong candidate simply because he is unknown. Thousands of Democrats all over the country are lured on by this idea, and dozens of newspapers might be quoted as having expressed it in some form, though many of them put it forward as by no means well founded.

Far from being so, it has nothing to rest upon but a confusion between the business of nominating and that of electing Presidents. The notion that the voters of the country can be offered a choice in November between Roosevelt on one side and an "unknown quantity" on the other is a pure delusion. It is in nominating conventions, not in elections, that "unknown quantities" figure, and so it has been from the beginning. For Democrats to master this ought to be to them easier because recent history has been full of illustrations that it is disastrous to them. A candidate for nomination by a convention may derive strength from being unknown, because he is likely to have made but few enemies, or none at all, and consequently the different factions may find it easier to unite on him. The fact that Lincoln was unknown to the country at large made it less difficult to nominate him in 1860 than Seward. The fact that Hayes was little known outside of Ohio helped to give him the Republican nomination in 1876. But neither Lincoln nor Hayes was an unknown quantity when the election came off. By November the whole coutry knew exactly what sort of men they were voting for. One of the functions of a campaign is to act as a searchlight on the character and history of the candidates, and leave not a trait or event in shadow.

When Hancock was nominated by the Democrats in 1880 it was as a distinctly unknown quantity, so far as political matters were concerned. The theory of the nomination was that he would run well as a military man, and, his mind being a *tabula rasa* on all matters connected with government, it could not be objected to him that he had any political enemies. His was a name to conjure with, and he could be voted for, just as the Flag could be waved, by anybody. But it all turned out differently; the caricaturists got hold of him and made him thoroughly known. Long before November it was perfectly well understood what sort of quantity he was.

In taking up Bryan in 1896, the Democrats gave a glaring instance of the unknown-quantity fallacy. Cleveland they knew. He had twice got them the Presidency, but he had made a number of enemies, and they were in force in the convention. Bryan, an obscure local shouter, was unknown, and had none. So he was nominated with a hurrah. But he did not remain an unknown quantity. The process of making his acquaintance began among the voters as soon as the campaign opened, and by November the country had his measure.

For a party which desires to elect, it is important not to overlook what we have called the fallacy of the unknown quantity. When an unknown quantity has been nominated for the Presidency his incognito ceases, and his strength or weakness depends on what is found out about him, not on the number of points on which he has hitherto managed to keep silent. It is proverbially difficult in this country to nominate for high office conspicuous men of strong character and pronounced views, and it is proverbially easier to unite in a nominating convention on obscure men

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without enemies, and who are "unknown quantities." But it is a compensation for this that when the election occurs neither candidate can be unknown. The more thoroughly the Democrats master this truth, the more chance they will have in the coming campaign. Delightful as it is to nominate, it is more essential to elect.

Judge Parker is undoubtedly an unknown quantity at present. On anything nearer to the questions before the country than the Constitutional guarantee of "due process of law," he has, we believe, never delivered himself. By holding his tongue he can remain unknown, but only until he is nominated. After that he must submit to the common fate. If he is a man of positive character, with decided views on the currency and the tariff and foreign relations, it will all come out. If, on the contrary, he is an entirely negative man, who has no conviction which cannot be modified to catch votes, that will come out, too. Depend upon it, we shall know all about him. Once nominated, what gave him his strength for the nomination will vanish, and he will be elected or defeated by what he really is.

THE OPERA SEASON.

In some respects the New York opera season of 1903-1904 will be remembered as the most interesting on record, and it is to be regretted that it should have been marred by shortcomings which were the more exasperating because they were unexpected. When Mr. Conried succeeded Mr. Grau, he recognized the fact that the one thing most needed at the Metropolitan Opera House was provision for more thorough rehearsing of the operas produced; he promised a speedy reform in this respect, but it is difficult to recall a season in which so many of the operas were apparently pitchforked upon the stage with no preparation at all. And shortcomings were particularly noticeable in the scenic department, which we had been told was to be specially improved.

It must be admitted that unforeseen difficulties confronted the new manager. He had intended to begin his rehearsals several weeks before the opening of the season; but the stage was being rebuilt, and was not ready in time, while the orchestra was away on a Western tour. Philadelphia presented another problem. Mr. Conried proposed to improve on Mr. Grau's plan by giving that city two or three weeks of nightly opera after the New York season; but the Philadelphians refused to look on that change as an improvement, so far as they were concerned, and threatened to have no opera at all unless they could get it once a week during the New York season. Thus was the manager thwarted in his attempt to save his Tuesdays for rehearsals; and since all his Thursdays were given over to "Parsifal," nothing was left but a few morning hours. As both Philadelphia and "Parsifal" will be with us again next season, it is obvious that the only salvation lies in carrying out the scheme of devoting five or six weeks to rehearsals before the opening date. That is the Bayreuth plan.

It is only fair to bear in mind that it was largely owing to circumstances beyond his control that Mr. Conried was prevented from making good some of his promises. He certainly did provide for most of the Wagner operas and some of the others new scenic outfits, which were a great improvement on what we have had before. If the setting and illuminating of these could have been properly rehearsed, they would have made a sensation instead of calling forth censure. "Parsifal" alone was done in a manner equalling and, in some respects, surpassing the Bayreuth standard, and the management reaped its financial reward in receipts exceeding $200,000 for that opera alone. Although the box-office results of the season have not been made public, there is reason to believe that no previous operatic year at the Metropolitan has yielded so large a profit. Extremes meet. For this happy result "Parsifal" was responsible in the first place, and, in the second place—Donizetti! The joint appearance of two such sterling artists as Mme. Sembrich and Signor Caruso led to a renaissance of old-fashioned Italian opera which caused the Donizetti works to draw crowded audiences at every performance.

In this fact lies the chief lesson of the season for the manager. Although everybody knows that Wagner is much more popular to-day than Donizetti (who has often, in fact, been pronounced dead), yet, with two or three exceptions, the Wagner operas have drawn smaller audiences than those of Donizetti. The reason is obvious. The recent Donizetti casts have never been excelled, perhaps never equalled, here; while the Wagner casts have usually been far inferior to those we have had in previous seasons. New Yorkers pay the highest prices in the world for opera tickets, and in return they demand, quite justly, that they should have the greatest singers in the world. Mr. Conried's chief mistake has been the failure to engage, at whatever price, certain singers who are great favorites here—Jean and Edouard de Reszke, Lillian Nordica, and Emma Eames. Mr. Grau used to say that his highest-priced singer, Jean de Reszke, was also the cheapest. He always filled the house. Without that tenor, Mr. Conried gave "Siegfried" once, to a moderate-sized audience, outside the cycle; with him, he could have given "Siegfried" six or eight times to crowded houses; and so with other operas—"Lohengrin," "Faust," "Romeo et Juliette," etc.

While Mr. Conried had been at one time an operatic manager abroad, he was, when appointed to his present place, unfamiliar with the taste and demands of the New York public. He had a vague idea that Europe was full of young and talented singers who would be promptly accepted here in place of the great stars he refused to engage. He is absurdly mistaken in this matter; there are painfully few good singers in Europe, and some that are admired there make little impression here, as Mr. Conried has had occasion to notice in the case of several of his importations. As regards French opera, the situation seems hopeless; there are no satisfactory tenors, and Mme. Calvé and M. Plançon appear to be the only first-class artists to be had from Paris, yet it seems doubtful if they will be here next year! But if there are few French singers, there are Americans and an Australian and Poles—Mmes. Eames, Nordica, Melba, MM. Jean and Edouard de Reszke—who sing French operas admirably. Why not make sure of these at once for next season?

Mr. Conried harbors antiquated ideas regarding "stars" and "ensemble." He apparently needs to be told that an ensemble of mediocrities is not desired or tolerated by opera-goers who pay $5 for a seat. What the want is *an ensemble of stars*, after the fashion of Mr. Grau. That is what fills the house and, notwithstanding the expense, yields a good profit. For the Italian operas alone have we had, this season, the best available singers. The result was that twelve Italian operas received fifty-four performances, whereas the eleven German operas in the repertory had only thirty-eight, and the three French operas had only ten performances. That tells the whole story; and if Mr. Conried cannot read the lesson as he runs, he is a poor business man. Instead of engaging the singers his patrons want, he is trying to "discipline" them—a very dangerous process. It is true that these artists get much less in Europe than they do at our opera-house; but they are not, as Mr. Conried fancies, dependent upon him. Other American managers are shrewd enough to know their value; hence we have Fritzi Scheff in an opera company of her own, and Calvé and Schumann-Heink preparing to follow her example; we have Nordica, Melba, Bispham, in the concert hall, with Gadski and Campanari ready to follow them. Where is this to end? Operatic affairs have reached a crisis, and this is the time for the subscribers to make known their wishes.

MR. CHOATE'S TALK TO WORKINGMEN.

LONDON, March 1, 1904.

Mr. Choate's talk to workingmen on the

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subject of Benjamin Franklin well deserves notice. It was delivered on February 20 to the students of the Workingmen's College, an institution founded by Frederick Maurice some fifty years ago, and of which it is my hope on some future occasion to write something further for the readers of the *Nation;* but at this moment my wish is to dwell upon certain conclusions suggested to one at least of his audience by Mr. Choate's admirable and charming address, which, with all its graciousness and its humor, was fitted to convey to Englishmen of all classes lessons of immense value at a time when every benevolent and public-spirited person has become so occupied with the social side of life as hardly to appreciate the moral merit of that manly individualism of which Franklin will always remain a typical example. If, let me add, I say little of Mr. Choate's genial urbanity, of the charm of his humor, of the perfect lucidity of his exposition, it is because the admirable qualities which have won for him the confidence of every Englishman who has the pleasure of his acquaintance are thoroughly known to his hundreds of friends and admirers at New York. My aim is, as I have said, simply to state, as the comparatively short reports of the English newspapers certainly do not, some few of the many ideas which Mr. Choate's account of Franklin excited in the minds of his audience.

First. Franklin, whose name and teaching are now little known in England, is well entitled to all the respect and admiration which he received from liberal-minded Englishmen in the earlier part of the nineteenth century. We must never forget the dictum, due, I think, originally to Sir Leslie Stephen, that in England the eighteenth century lasted till 1832; and Franklin was admired in England at what we may call the era of the Reform Act, because he was the incarnation of the wisdom and of the goodness of the eighteenth century. A stupid habit, fostered and encouraged by writers such as Carlyle, has been to talk of that age as if it were in a special sense marked by low moral tone, by false sentimentality, by lack of real earnestness. That the men of the eighteenth century had their faults, no competent critic can deny; that they had inherited a good number of speculative errors and practical abuses, is past a doubt; but the enlightenment that was perhaps overestimated, dispelled these errors, and the cosmopolitan philanthropy which is now far too little valued, abolished these abuses.

Franklin, at any rate, and many of his associates, were marked by a kind of truthfulness and sense of reality of which modern England possesses none too much. The leading feature of Franklin's character was honesty and respect for facts. Grant that his ideals, though never low, were in a sense prosaic; but let it be remembered that he struggled more earnestly than does one man in ten thousand to live up to his ideals. Industry, temperance, self-restraint, and honesty may be called common virtues, since they are needed by all men; but are assuredly, in fact, when consistently practised, excessively rare. What no one can doubt to be rare is, that a man should labor at the acquisition of these so-called common virtues with the same energy and method with which many men labor at the acquisition of wealth or of professional success.

Let us, again, assume, for the sake of argument, that the moralists of the eighteenth century, in their religious conceptions, showed a want of imagination and of fervor, and underestimated the value of faith and enthusiasm. Even if this be so, the justification and excuse lies ready to hand, that they underrated religious emotion because it had been closely allied with the fanaticism, intolerance, and persecution which had tortured the men of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and were therefore to the thinkers of the eighteenth century the objects of special detestation. But if we look at Franklin, we may pause a good while before we condemn the religious attitude of this enlightened philosopher and his contemporaries. His somewhat frigid Deism was, as Mr. Choate showed, a real faith—that is, a creed which actually influenced his conduct. It meant, indeed, to Englishmen on either side the Atlantic a good deal more than their descendants are apt to suppose. The God of Nature, the benevolent Creator, whose equal and impartial Providence ruled the universe and showered blessings upon all men, irrespective of their creeds, was an object of far more rational adoration than the Deity whom Catholics and Protestants, Calvinists and Jesuits, pictured to themselves as taking a side in bitter theological controversies, and countenancing the cruelties and the persecutions by which fanatics of all kinds believed they could serve Heaven while tormenting their brethermen. It was better to worship Franklin's God of Nature than the God either of Loyola or of Calvin. Toleration, which is now accepted as a rule of common sense, was with Franklin, as with the other leaders of the eighteenth century, a true form of religious enthusiasm and of worship.

Secondly, Franklin will never receive from modern Englishmen anything like his due meed of praise. The force of the reaction against the reasonableness of the eighteenth century which set in in the earlier years of the nineteenth, has not as yet spent its full force. The state of opinion in England is a strange one. We condemn and despise that lack of enthusiasm and of fervor in which we believe men like Franklin were deficient; yet, while we talk as if we had left the eighteenth century far behind us, we are unconsciously reverting to a religious or non-religious attitude very like the attitude of the more enlightened among our grandfathers. The Evangelicals or the Methodists who aroused a religious revival, who rekindled religious emotion, had a right, if they chose, to blame the cold morality of Franklin, or Bentham, or Paley. But what right have we Englishmen or Americans of to-day to repeat the censures of religious revivalists? Do we suppose that Wesley, or Whitefield, or Simeon, could they return to the world, would deem our morality a whit less cold than the morality of the men of the eighteenth century? Whitefield, with whom Franklin was intimate, would, we suspect, find the men and women of to-day far less accessible to religious emotions than were the congregations among whom he kindled passionate fervor.

The reason why many of us cannot sympathize with Franklin is one which, even in our own hearts, we hardly dare to avow. His idea of a man's duty was that one should form a reasonable or even a prosaic view of virtue, and then try heart and soul to live up to it. Our conception of human duty is, that men should form a poetical or imaginative ideal of virtue, and then tacitly admit the impossibility of living up to our ideals. We value, as Franklin possibly did not, high aspirations. Franklin undervalued emotional morality, but he rated beyond everything else correspondence between a man's moral principles and his conduct. The same difference of moral judgment takes sometimes another shape. All Franklin's sympathies were given to persons who, even if they took Poor Richard's maxims as their guide, actually practised the humble virtues which these maxims enjoin. Our sympathy is nowadays given only to some man or woman whom we deem "interesting," but interest is aroused by inconsistency and inequality of character. Hence the modern biographies which are read with avidity are the lives of heroes or heroines whose high aspirations are far more remarkable than the excellence of their conduct.

Thirdly. The true lesson of Franklin's career is that virtue may be fostered and success in life be achieved by means of energy and self-help. This is the moral to which Mr. Choate's impressive address again and again came round. Surely, it is a lesson which modern Englishmen generally, and especially English workingmen, need to learn, and which is rarely pressed upon their attention. Just as our sense of social duty has risen, our sense of the individual duty of self-help has declined. Neither in church nor in chapel, neither in Parliament nor on the platform, are men now taught that their moral welfare and social prosperity depend on their own conduct. One who described himself as a workingman recently poured out to the London *Times* his bitter complaint. His grievance was that, while "the workmen of England are without doubt the finest and most intelligent men in the world," yet "the British Government has not succeeded in placing [them] in anything like the splendid position in which the American Government has succeeded in placing its workingmen." It is worth while to weigh well the assumptions which this language implies. Whoever does so will come to understand some singular features of public life in England at the beginning of the twentieth century. One conclusion, at least, will be easily reached by an impartial thinker. If many wage-earners share the ideas of this "workingman," from whose letter I have quoted a few words, it is high time that English workmen and also English statesmen should lay again to heart Poor Richard's maxims, and should turn to the teaching of Benjamin Franklin.

AN OBSERVER.

MADAME DE POMPADOUR.

PARIS, February 22, 1904.

M. Pierre de Nolhac, the present keeper of the famous palace of Versailles, is doing an excellent work in restoring the favorite habitation of the French Kings and the centre of their brilliant and numerous court. When the Revolution dragged Louis XVI. from Versailles to Paris, the palace was forever abandoned. Napoleon, in all his glory, would never inhabit it, and the Bourbons, after their return, neglected it

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and looked on it with painful recollections of the evil days of the Revolution. Louis-Philippe, who kept his court at the Tuileries, resolved to make of the Versailles of the Kings a national palace; he dedicated it "à toutes les gloires de la France." His architects found the palace inhabited by more than a hundred families, who, under various pretexts, had installed themselves in every corner of it, and had completely changed the character of all the apartments. It was no easy task to turn out all these parasites. Under the direction of Louis-Philippe the palace became a sort of historical museum: souvenirs of old France were mixed up with souvenirs of the Napoleonic period; a most admirable collection of pictures covered the walls; the ancient panels were too often replaced by new ones, more convenient for hanging the additional pictures; Horace Vernet covered whole walls with his enormous battle-pictures. Under the Second Empire, Napoleon III. continued to fill Versailles in the same spirit.

It was only when M. Pierre de Nolhac became the keeper of Versailles that a new plan of restoration was formed. M. de Nolhac has done his best to show us Versailles, or at least a great part of it, as it was under the reigns of the Kings. He has found the old panels and replaced them, he has hung the portraits where they were placed in their time, he has given us a vivid representation of the ancient court. He has published some very excellent and beautiful works devoted to the last occupants of Versailles. They have had the success they deserve. I will only refer to-day to a study, which he has just made, of Madame de Pompadour, and which is probably only the preface to a compendious volume.

"It is difficult," says M. de Nolhac, "to defend the memory of Madame de Pompadour. She has had against her, at the same time, the writers of a party who could not forgive her the suppression of the order of the Jesuits, and all the Revolutionary writers. . . . The quiet study of facts and of men is daily abating these exaggerations." Madame de Pompadour's extraction was the subject of much criticism; she was thought, by the aristocratic society in which she lived at the time she was in favor, to be unworthy of it; her family was much despised and abused; she herself never forgot her origin, as M. de Nolhac has found proof in some inedited documents—sixty-five letters of François Poisson to M. de Vandières, the letters of Le Normant de Tournehem to M. Poisson, her father, who was a Paris butcher. His daughter married a financier, Lenormand d'Etioles. She was very handsome, and had received the most brilliant education; she was introduced into the court circle by the Duc de Richelieu. After the death of the Duchess of Châteauroux she became the favorite of Louis XV., who named her Marchioness de Pompadour. She at once took the measure of her royal lover, and aspired to be "not only a mistress for the King's amusement, but a personage of state. She followed the King when he went to the army; she mixed in all public affairs; generals, secretaries of state, ambassadors, were obliged to reckon with her. She became openly for about fifteen years a sort of prime minister."

Madame de Pompadour was thus a power in Europe. Frederick the Great imprudently offended her by his sarcasms against "petticoat government." Maria Theresa, the virtuous Empress, who was regarded as a model mother, went so far, in order to separate France from Prussia and to obtain the French alliance, as to write to Madame de Pompadour, and to call her "chère amie" and "belle cousine." Cardinal de Bernis, the favorite of Madame de Pompadour, whom she made Minister of Foreign Affairs, signed with Austria the Treaty of Versailles, in which France engaged to help the cause of Maria Theresa with an army of eighty thousand men. Madame de Pompadour is in reality an historical character. She seduced in France not only the court, but the artists, the men of letters, especially Voltaire, by a certain kind of greatness, by her generosity, her philosophical ideality. M. de Nolhac does not deal with the historical events in which Madame de Pompadour played such an important part; he enters more into her private life, and particularly into her relations with her own family.

She procured for the husband whom she had left, M. d'Etioles, a very large income, which allowed him to lead the life of the great financiers of the time in the Hôtel Conti. He was a farmer-general, and succeeded, in this important office, his uncle, M. de Tournehem, who had himself been made Director of the King's Palaces. All the members of her own family became her protégés. "There was no distant cousin who could not look to her for assistance when it came to establishing his children. A trace is found of her liberality in the text of her will, in the list of the pensions which she paid." Her father was intoxicated by the honors paid to her, and often became importunate. The same may be said of her brother. Poisson wished his son to be made Superintendent of the King's Palaces; she writes to him: "In order to be happy, you should never desire impossible things; I am sure there never will be a Superintendent, either of finances or of buildings; so don't let us think about it. This does not prevent my being sure of securing a good marriage for my brother."

Madame de Pompadour wished, however, to prepare her brother for the functions of a sort of Director of Fine Arts by a journey to Italy. She herself chose three persons to accompany him in it—Cochin, the engraver, who was one of her favorite artists; the architect Soufflot, who built the Panthéon of Paris; and the Abbé Le Blanc, a great friend of the pastellist La Tour, the art critic of the official paper, the *Mercure*. M. de Vandières could not have had better companions. "On this journey," wrote his sister to him, "depends all your reputation and your fortune." Vandières was twenty-four years old; the Marquise gave him instructions, in a letter which he received at Lyons on December 18, 1749:

"You were right, *frérot*, not to bid me good-bye; for, despite the utility of this journey for you and the wishes I have always entertained for your good, I should have had great pain in leaving you. . . . What I recommend to you above everything is the greatest politeness, the greatest discretion. Get it well into your head that, being made for the world and for society, you must be amiable to everybody, for, if one took thought only of the people he esteemed, he would be detested by nearly all human kind. Do not forget the conversations which we have had, and do not believe that, because I am young, I cannot give good advice. I have seen so many things during the four years and a half that I have been here, that I know more than a woman forty years old."

Vandières and his companions left Paris in December, 1749, and did not return till July, 1751. Madame de Pompadour's brother travelled as a *grand seigneur*, at the King's expense. He was under orders to keep everywhere open table; he was received by the King's ministers, and presented privately to all the sovereign princes. He seems to have been a very agreeable young man. The Duke de Nivernois at Rome praised him much, as Madame de Pompadour wrote to him. Well pleased also were M. de la Chétardie at Turin, the Marquis de l'Hôpital at Naples. During Vandières's absence the position of his father was much bettered. On his return he found his parent established on a fine estate at Marigny. There the young traveller was received in triumph, complimented by the curate and the inhabitants; the girls and the boys, costumed as shepherds and shepherdesses, accompanied him with songs; at the château they offered their lord the wine of honor. At their head was the *bailli*, who paid him a compliment. In the evenings, there were great displays of fireworks in the park. "Under what name," wrote Madame de Pompadour to her father, "do you wish your estate to be made a marquisate?" This request made him hesitate; he only desired the marquisate for his son, and wrote to him: "M. de Gesvres wishes you to assume the name of Marquis of Marigny; take it. As for myself, my name is François Poisson."

A new château was built at Marigny, under the direction of the great architect Gabriel. Poisson was growing to be a personage. His daughter was incessant in her attentions to him. Another of her affections was the daughter she had during her marriage, Alexandrine d'Etioles; she had her educated in the Convent of the Assumption, the best convent in Paris for the daughters of the great families. She was trying to find a husband for her in the most aristocratic circles when Alexandrine died after a short malady. Vandières became Marquis de Marigny by letters-patent on the 14th of September, 1754; he occupied the post which, under the title of Superintendent, had been occupied by the greatest ministers of Louis XIV. He had learned much in Italy, and showed great competence in all matters concerning his department.

If Madame de Pompadour deserves many reproaches, it must be said, to her credit, that she was a very good daughter and sister; she was also a great patron of art, and her influence was felt in the artistic movement of her time. She was more competent to choose painters, sculptors, and architects than generals and ambassadors.

Correspondence.

THE ABOLITION OF WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The present Russo-Japanese war, occurring so soon after the establishment of the Hague tribunal of international arbitration at the suggestion of the White Czar, is absorbing the interest of man-

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kind, and raises more sharply than ever the question of the abolition of war. War is contrary to the Christian religion and morality. All admit this, and argument is superfluous. The duel, private war, and civil war have already been largely abolished in most civilized countries. It remains only to abolish international war among the few great Powers, and the rest will follow.

Every great reform must start with a thought coupled with a feeling. The principal thought and feeling in this reform ought to be that war is a system of wholesale murder and suicide, and that the man who favors war for its own sake is a murderer and destroyer, a criminal at heart. Comparatively few men are deliberately of this nature in time of peace, and fewer still would care to acknowledge it. But in time of war all men, and even many women, are to a greater or less extent infected by the war spirit, the blood lust, and the love of destruction.

The true weapon against war is moral. But few men are willing or able to oppose current public opinion ethically. The vast majority of mankind are too selfish to be influenced by purely moral considerations. They refrain from lying, stealing, killing, and destroying, not because these things are wrong, but because it "does not pay" to commit these crimes—or, at any rate, to get found out. In other words, it is not for their selfish interest to be criminal. Principle is pure gold, expediency is pinchbeck or brass. But so powerful is the influence of expediency and selfishness in human affairs that, although they must be rigorously and uncompromisingly treated as inferior motives for moral reform, yet they must be utilized in order to obtain practical results. Mankind must make a practical working choice between civilization and war, building-up and progress on the one hand, tearing down and destruction on the other; the sacredness of human life in all its integrities on the right, hell drenched with human blood on the left. There can be no question of the ultimate result, and the practical progress of humanity and civilization is so rapid nowadays that the abolition of war is a foregone conclusion, and probably far nearer than seems possible to "practical" men who are not practical. We should bend our best efforts to hasten the dawn of universal peace.

War is essentially unscientific and unpractical. From the standpoint of evolution it is a system for the wholesale destruction of the fittest. The beneficent energies of science and art are employed to build up and improve two countries; then their evil powers are employed to injure and destroy these same countries. This is inconsistent. Two countries commit the crime of war. Gigantic fines are imposed on both victor and vanquished, and inexorably collected. Witness the decline of British consols since the Boer war, and the present decline in Russian and Japanese bonds—measures of the poverty resulting from these fines. Witness the stagnation of our own business—the fine imposed and collected from mere spectators. Does war "pay"? Is there more money in crutches than in boots, in shrouds than in shirts?

War survives only because it is regarded as a practical necessity in international affairs; yet within the limits of any one country peace is regarded as a practical necessity. Another inconsistency. Manifestly, the problem is only to enlarge the sphere of peace to international and finally world dimensions. What idea and feeling must we cultivate? Simply that humanity is a higher sentiment than patriotism, and that the affairs of the whole world are of more practical importance than the affairs of any one country. There are but half-a-dozen first-class Powers in the world. The combination of two or three at most could practically dictate peace to the civilized world. The United States of America should be the leader of this combination. The beginning of the details seems difficult, but we have built transcontinental railroads and are about to dig an interoceanic canal; the same practical conviction, careful survey, and skilful engineering and perseverance will achieve the infinitely greater feat of the abolition of war. Populism is an adverse factor, but that can be overcome.

With the downfall of war, the bottom will drop out of the whole structure of selfishness (as distinguished from legitimate self-interest). War brutalizes and degrades, in spite of its nobler and better side. Upon the whole it fosters the spirit of hostility, brutality, hardness, coldness, calculation, and general selfishness. It tends to let loose blood-lust, land-lust, gold-lust, sex-lust, drink-lust, and all the others. This is not ignoring the moral benefits of war, but is the just striking of the balance.

Many will ask what is to become of manhood if war is abolished. The answer to this question is easy. What *has* become of our American manhood in the generations of peace intervening between our few wars? With no more war, we shall have the strength and courage of men rather than the brutality and ferocity of human wild beasts, and in addition the gentler virtues of humanity. It is exercise, not strain, which develops and strengthens. Suppose all the wars in the world could be concentrated into a single delimited permanent war-zone—an arrangement which should be more satisfactory than the present one, both to the lovers of peace and the lovers of war. That war-zone would contract as time went on. Women and children and some men would flee into the peace-zone, and not so many would go the other way. The remaining population would dwindle away by decimation, loss of property, poverty and disease, and the decline of reproduction. If this war-zone should appear as a red spot to observers from neighboring planets, they would soon be discussing its disappearance in amazement.

ROBERT SEDGWICK MINOT.

BOSTON, March 8, 1904.

A PITFALL OF ATHLETICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter of Professor MacDonald in the current number of the *Nation* on "The Athletic Imbroglio at Brown" prompts me to say a few words in defence of what I understand to be the position of the recent members of the Committee on Athletics at Brown. My warrant for expressing an opinion concerning the rules against professionalism in college athletics is that I have watched the course of such athletics with considerable interest for a generation, and that I was for four years, 1897-1901, a member of the Committee on Athletics at Harvard.

During my service on the Harvard committee I came to the conviction, which nothing occurring since has weakened, that the rules against professionalism were a potent cause of demoralization, and ought to be amended or abolished. For example, there was, and I believe there still is, a rule declaring any person to be a professional athlete who had ever engaged in any athletic contest for money, or had ever received money for teaching any branch of athletics. There was no age limit, no time limit, no money limit. I well remember the feeling of dismay which overwhelmed a boy of ten or twelve years when he discovered that to engage in a footrace for a five-cent prize made him a professional athlete for life, according to the Harvard rule. Ridiculous, childish misapprehension! Of course, no one would think of holding to the letter of the law in such a case. Precisely so; but at just what age, with just how large a prize, would the law come into force? There is no possible answer to this question. Every individual, whether athlete or member of the committee governing athletics, must interpret the law, not literally—that is impossible—but according to his judgment of what is reasonable.

I suppose there never was a committee on athletics having this rule that did not wink at some violations of it. What, then, of the athlete himself? Four or five years ago, let us say, he taught boys to swim at a summer camp and got a few dollars of pay for this entirely respectable piece of work. Shall he, then, renounce all participation in college athletics, or shall he say to himself, "I don't think that ought to count; I will say nothing about it"? Judging from analogous cases which I have noticed, I believe that he will almost invariably take the latter course. Is it clear that he should not do so, the rule in question being, as every one acknowledges, not to be taken with absolute literalness? Very well; he goes into a college team and becomes important; somebody looks up his "record"; explanations are called for. Then begins the process of proving by affidavits or other solemn statements from the athlete, or perhaps from the head of the school in which he did the work in question, that, although A. B. did receive pay as a teacher in the summer school, and did teach swimming as a part of his regular duty in that school, yet the said A. B. was not paid for teaching swimming. And there you are at last, thoroughly sophisticated, literally demoralized. This is the sort of thing that an absurdly strict rule has occasionally brought to pass at Harvard. I have no doubt it has worked in the same way at Brown.

What, then, can be done? We must have some rules. I should like to see the following plan tried:

Have no man on a 'varsity team during the first year of his residence.

Have on the 'varsity teams only *regular undergraduates* in good standing.

Leave the matter of summer baseball and other kindred questions entirely to the good sense and good taste of the athletic authorities of each institution.

Very truly yours, EDWIN H. HALL.

30 LANGDON ST., CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 18, 1904.

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ACADEMIC SALARIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "A. Grocer" (No. 2016) may certainly pride himself on having exhibited the commercial view of academic life in all its naked atrocity. I wonder, however, whether on reflection he is quite satisfied with the results. Does he seriously think that the "sour pedants" whom "great" universities condemn to lingering starvation on $1,000 a year are the stuff whereof "good instructors" are made? Does he contemplate with equanimity the prospect of leaving the higher education of a great country, the advancement of its knowledge, the appreciation of its literature, in the hands of an undistinguished multitude of such soured pedants? Perhaps he would reply that for first-rate men he was willing to pay more. But has he ever considered what attractions the prospect of being turned into "sour pedants" offers to young men of ability and ambition? However attractive the pursuit of learning might intrinsically have seemed to them, will they not be forced to put aside the temptation of a career which condemns them to lifelong penury? And if his commercially alert college president cannot *recruit* first-rate men for the profession, whence will he get them for the higher posts?

The difficulty is a real one, not only in America. We feel it even in Oxford, where the ablest men are manifesting a growing inclination to prefer to academic seclusion the more stirring life and greater prizes of the professions and the Civil Service, so that it is often not quite easy to fill academic positions worthily. And yet we offer far better terms to beginners than are to be had in any American institution. They usually receive about $2,000 to start with, an honorable position as members of a self-governing corporation, and practical fixity of tenure. And we are crafty enough also to select our tutors while they are yet young and fairly innocent and still deem the academic the ideal life!

In short, even from the most commercial standpoint of, the most unacademic board of trustees, it seems a mistake to put all the money into bricks and mortar. Libraries and laboratories alone will not advance learning or evolve discovery: Ἀνδρες οὐ τείχη πόλις. Real ability is rare, and unless its highest forms can be enrolled in the army of science, the soured pedants and commonplace dullards will conduce, not to the advancement of learning, but to its contempt. F. C. S. Schiller.

Oxford, March 1, 1904.

A PROTEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have received a flamboyant advertisement of a work in twenty volumes which calls itself "A Definitive, Authoritative and Inclusive Narrative History of North America,' edited by Guy Carleton Lee and published by George Barrie & Sons of Philadelphia. Some publishers allow themselves such latitude in the praising of their wares that, although the present advertisement is, I think, the most pretentious I have ever seen, carries self-laudation almost beyond the bounds of rhetoric, and commends the editor in most fulsome terms, I do not intend to comment on these things. It is a more serious matter that, in the heading, below the extraordinary title or legend I have quoted, occur the words, "Based on a Plan suggested by the American Historical Association." Every one who has attended the meetings of the American Historical Association during recent years knows well that it has never suggested or approved any plan for any coöperative history of America. The nearest approach to such action was when, at the Washington meeting of 1901, "the council reported that, at a meeting held in New York, November 29, the proposition of a coöperative history of America was carefully considered, and, in view of the difficulties involved, the council had voted that it would not be expedient for the American Historical Association to take part in forming or carrying out a plan for the composition or publication of a co-operative history of the United States. On motion, the action of the council was unanimously approved by the Association" (Proceedings, Annual Report for 1901, p. 37). The project then submitted and rejected was not this of Mr. Lee's. Yet the circular before me, after speaking of the plan of the proposed work, proceeds to say:

"The American Historical Association some time ago considered the question and determined on a plan for a history that should be: (1) coöperative; (2) under the direction of an editor-in-chief; (3) that the publication be made in small volumes, each complete in itself. The plan of the Association has been improved upon in that," etc.

The statement here made is completely and notoriously false. It is likely that the writers of the circular have shrewdly chosen language which exempts them from legal consequences. But the intention to deceive the public into the belief that the American Historical Association is in some manner connected with the enterprise is none the less manifest, and none the less contemptible.—Respectfully yours,

J. Franklin Jameson.

University of Chicago, March 11, 1904

THE PAPAL TIARA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Nation* of January 14 has just come under my notice. Apropos of the review of Father Chandlery's book there is a statement which, doubtless, for the sake of accuracy, you will wish to correct. The discriminating reader will have corrected it for himself.

The reviewer says (p. 37, col. 2): "The author surely cannot be ignorant that the tiara first came into existence in the fourteenth century." The tiara as symbolical of priestly dignity or authority was used in the Jewish priesthood (V. Exod. c. 28, v. 40, Lat. Vers.). Long before the fourteenth century the Popes wore the tiara, but it had only one crown until Boniface VIII., in the thirteenth century, added a second, to which again Benedict XII., in the fourteenth century, joined a third crown, such as it is seen to-day.

In all probability your reviewer referred to the fourteenth-century extension; but, in this view, where is the incongruity of finding a Pope of the eleventh century whose head is adorned with the tiara? The author under review refrained from describing its form. It would seem that the reviewer was rather unhappy in his choice of an example to show the lack of scholarship in the work reviewed.—Yours truly,

F. G. H.

Rome, February 29, 1904.

THE DONNA LAURA MINGHETTI LEONARDO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg you to give publicity to the enclosed note. Its appearance in print will dispel a rumor which has been spreading for I know not how long before faithful friends made me aware of it.—Yours truly,

B. Berenson.

New York, March 10, 1904.

Bernhard Berenson, Esq., New York:

My Dear Berenson: Referring to the rumors that you purchased for me the picture known as "The Donna Laura Minghetti Leonardo da Vinci," and that you received a large remuneration for so doing, etc.!—I purchased the picture without your knowledge or advice. You had not the slightest connection with the purchase, and did not know of it till some weeks thereafter, when I told you.

You may make such use of this letter as you please.—Always yours,

Theo. M. Davis.

Luxor, Egypt, January 7, 1904.

Notes.

Dr. William J. Campbell, a well-known bookseller of Philadelphia, is writing an elaborate work on St.-Mémin portraits. It will be in eight volumes, with more than eight hundred engraved portraits, all on separate pages. The basis of the book will be the famous "Collection" of 761 proofs, made by the artist himself, which has recently come into Dr. Campbell's possession. The Corcoran Gallery of Art and the Library of Congress, both of which have extensive collections, are coöperating with him, giving him the free use of any portraits that they possess which are not in his own collection. It will be a favor to him if any of our readers who have information, either biographical or genealogical, about any portrait that St.-Mémin made, or any information as to the present whereabouts of any original crayons, coppers, or engravings, will communicate with him. His address is 1218 Walnut Street, Philadelphia. Due credit will be given in the book for all information received.

Mr. John Cotton Dana, Librarian of the Public Library of Newark, N. J., and Mr. Henry W. Kent, Librarian of the Grolier Club of this city, have united to publish during the coming twelvemonth "a series of six reprints of rare and out-of-print seventeenth and eighteenth-century works on Libraries and their management," to wit, J. B. Cotton des Houssaye's 'Des Devoirs et des Qualités du Bibliothécaire,' the Rev. J. Kirkwood's 'Overture for Founding and Maintaining of Bibliothecks in every Paroch throughout this Kingdom,' Lipsius's 'De Bibliothecis Syntagma,' Bodley's Life and first draught of the Statutes of the Public Library at Oxford, Gabriel Naudé's description of the Library of Cardinal Mazarin, and John Dury's 'The Reformed Librarie-Keeper.' Subscriptions will be taken

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only for the entire set, at $10; the edition being limited to 525 copies. The character of the presswork is assured by its proceeding from the Merrymount Press, Boston.

We select from Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s spring announcements the following titles: 'Francis Parkman,' by Henry D. Sedgwick; 'William Hickling Prescott,' by Rollo Ogden; 'John A. Andrew,' by Henry G. Pearson; 'Napoleon,' volumes i. and ii. of four, by Col. Theodore A. Dodge; 'Kwaidan,' Japanese tales by Lafcadio Hearn; 'The Views about Hamlet, and Other Essays,' by Prof. Albert H. Tolman of Chicago University; 'The *De Monarchia* of Dante,' translated, with introduction and notes, by Aurelia Henry; 'English and Scottish Ballads,' a selection from Professor Child's great work, edited by George L. Kittredge and Helen Child Sargent; 'Whittier Land,' by his biographer, Samuel T. Pickard; and 'A Guide to the Birds of New England and Eastern New York,' by Ralph Hoffmann.

'Trusts of To-day,' by Gilbert Holland Montague, will be published directly by McClure, Phillips & Co.

'Problems of the Present South,' by Edgar Gardner Murphy; 'The History of American Music,' by Louis C. Elson; 'Old-Time Schools and Schoolbooks,' illustrated, by Clifton Johnson; a Life of D. G. Rossetti by Arthur Christopher Benson; and Palgrave's 'Golden Treasury of Songs and Lyrics' taken over in the "Pocket Classics," may shortly be expected from Macmillan Co., along with 'Lord Acton's Letters to Mary Gladstone' and Sir Leslie Stephen's posthumous 'Life of Hobbes.'

George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia, announce 'Organized Labor and Capital,' the Bull Lectures for 1904, by the Rev. Washington Gladden and others.

The Jewish Publication Society, Philadelphia, Pa., is about to issue a book entitled 'The Voice of America on Kishineff,' edited by Cyrus Adler. The introduction gives a succinct account of the Kishineff outrages and a review of the effect the news of them created in the United States.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will bring out 'The Evolution of the Soul, and Other Essays,' by the late Dr. Thomas J. Hudson, and 'Bird-Centre Cartoons,' by John T. McCutcheon.

The latest Clarendon Press "notices" embrace 'The Complete Works of Ben Jonson,' edited by C. H. Herford and Percy Simpson; Johnson's 'Lives of the Poets,' edited in three volumes by the late G. Birkbeck Hill; 'The Remains of Samuel Butler,' edited by Miss Edith J. Morley; Sir Thomas More's 'Utopia,' edited by J. Churton Collins; 'Keltic Researches,' by E. W. B. Nicholson; 'Documents relating to the French Revolution,' 1789-1791, edited by L. G. Wickham Legg; 'Industrial Organization in the 16th and 17th Centuries,' by G. Unwin; a 'Colloquial Egyptian-Arabic Grammar,' by William H. Lyall, and 'Indian Housekeeping Hints,' by Mrs. A. C. Wilson.

Since the Orient has the floor, Mr. Edward Carpenter needs and makes no excuse for a second edition of his lively narrative, 'From Adam's Peak to Elephanta: Sketches in Ceylon and India' (E. P. Dutton & Co.). We reported upon it at considerable length nearly ten years ago, and it is now unchanged except for some little correction, the insertion of two portraits, and an appendix on the present financial condition of India, inasmuch as terrible famines have intervened since the text was originally penned. Mr. Carpenter's view of the future is not cheerful.

A pertinent and timely excerpt has been made of Part II. from Volume IV. of Lucas's standard 'Historical Geography of the British Colonies,' resulting in a small and comely volume entitled 'Geography of South and East Africa' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). It is provided with six maps, and Hugh Edward Egerton has supplied chapters on the Transvaal and Orange River Colony. A useful index to the principal proper names should be mentioned. The work is purely non-political, and deals only with British possessions.

It is quite exceptional to have a substantial text-book derived from a foreign language wholly retranslated, and by a new hand, after more than a decade's use and apparent popularity in the schools. This is what has happened to Professor Gide's 'Principles of Political Economy,' published in 1891, and now once more, by D. C. Heath & Co. The present translator is Prof. C. William A. Veditz, and he has reproduced the eighth French edition, but with a sort of Americanization, replacing Old World examples with our experience, as in tariff legislation, adding "whole paragraphs and pages" to some of the sections on "Distribution and Consumption," and omitting Gide's appendix on French finance. We note this commendable treatment without repeating the examination which we gave to the earlier version.

Fifteen years, with all the steady rise in the cost of living and of social entertainment, have not diminished Mr. Philip G. Hubert, jr.'s, faith in the underlying soundness of his economic idyll entitled 'Liberty and a Living,' "the record of an attempt [on the south shore of Long Island] to secure bread and butter, sunshine and content, by gardening, fishing and hunting" (G. P. Putnam's Sons). He accordingly puts it forth anew with a stout-hearted preface; and agreeable reading, if not convincement, may be promised those who follow him. The idea at least is stimulating, and the book is an enemy to waste.

The gazetteer that N. W. Ayer & Son's 'American Newspaper Annual' might fitly be called, makes its annual appearance from Philadelphia in a great volume of nearly 1,500 pages apart from the advertisements. It merits a place in every business office, and is a very convenient resort for population, railroad, and express information, in addition to general physical descriptions of the larger areas of the country, and fifty-eight colored maps. Nor are foreign periodicals neglected. The names of the editors accompany other data desirable for advertisers. The publishers spare no pains to maintain the Annual's reputation for freshness and accuracy.

Fresh series of reprints challenge the attention and the purses of buyers. The newest from Methuen & Co., London, entitled "Rariora," has the peculiarity of disregard of uniformity, because the rather rare originals are copied "page for page" as well as "error for error," or, in common phrase, verbatim. Beginning is made with Shelley's 'Adonais,' from the edition of 1821. There is a facsimile of the Pisa title-page; but the preface and poem are set anew, albeit slavishly. The cover is a granite blue, and bears a white label, with a pretty effect.

Of American provenance is the "Belles-Lettres Series" of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, just begun with Goldsmith's "Good-Natured Man" and "She Stoops to Conquer," with an introduction by Austin Dobson; and "Eastward Hoe," by Jonson, Chapman and Marston, and Jonson's "The Alchemist," edited by Prof. Felix E. Schelling. The general editorship has been entrusted to Prof. George P. Baker of Harvard. These squarish little volumes have an old-fashioned, individual appearance, and have the merit of a sufficiently bold type and unglazed paper. A frontispiece will apparently be the rule, and, besides the notes, a bibliography and a glossary. The older spelling is retained, but not the capitalization or punctuation; and variants are recorded, very instructively, as may be imagined. The enterprise deserves consideration both in and out of educational circles.

Prof. Frederick J. E. Woodbridge's 'The Philosophy of Hobbes in Extracts and Notes collected from his Writings' (Minneapolis: The H. W. Wilson Co.) is, we presume, well adapted to the use of hearers of a particular course of lectures, though hardly sufficient by itself, perhaps, for an understanding of Hobbes. It contains some 370 pages from the 'Leviathan' and from the 'Elements of Philosophy concerning Body' (the *De Corpore*). As a rule, we have not been particularly favorable to such volumes of extracts from philosophical writings that are easily obtained in their entirety, and which would seem to be worth reading in full by anybody interested in philosophy. If he has not the time to do so this season, let him have the book within reach, and some day he will read it. About Spinoza a considerable class of persons have a burning curiosity that can quickly be appeased, so that a book of Extracts from him is all very well. But for such smooth reading as Locke, Reid, and especially Hobbes, with his strong style and interesting cast of thought, we really do think it a pity to encourage fragmentary reading. It is not as if there were not editions of his works to be had at moderate prices—beautiful editions, too, while the presswork of this volume is no better than indifferent. The 'Leviathan' may be had, well-printed *in extenso*, for less than the price of these extracts. On the other hand, the extracts from other writings of Hobbes here printed as notes do add decidedly to the value of this edition; and the portrait is well reproduced.

A very small book with a very long title is William J. Hammer's 'Radium and Other Radio-active Substances, Polonium, Actinium, and Thorium, with a consideration of Phosphorescent and Fluorescent Substances, the Properties and Applications of Selenium, and the Treatment of Disease by the Ultra-Violet Light' (D. Van Nostrand Co.). It gives a good popular account of the state of these subjects less than a year ago (though as to fluorescence and phosphorescence insufficient); and nothing very essential has since come to light.

A translation of Dr. H. Hovestadt's volume on 'Jena Glass' and its scientific and industrial applications is published by Macmillan. The book contains chapters on the optical properties of glass, and the perfecting of optical systems by the use of the

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new glasses which are the product of the Jena factory; and others on the mechanical, thermal, electrical, and magneto-electrical properties, and the behavior of glass surfaces towards chemical influences. An introduction gives a very interesting account of the origin and development of this notable Jena industry. The impulse was given by a paper by Abbe which appeared in 1878, in which he discussed in detail the requirements to be satisfied if any real improvement in the performance of refracting instruments was to be obtained, and arrived at the conclusion that the matter lay chiefly in the hands of the glassmakers. If the glassmaker would leave the beaten track and make a methodical study of the optical properties of the chemical elements in combination, new varieties of glass might be discovered which would meet the requirements. This paper led Dr. Schott, who was interested in glassmaking by family tradition as well as by personal study, to undertake the suggested work. In 1881 he began, in conjunction with Abbe, a joint investigation of the difficult problems, viz., the production of crown and flint pairs with proportional dispersion throughout the spectrum, in order to obtain a higher degree of achromatism; and the attainment of greater diversity in the two chief constants of optical glass—mean index and mean dispersion. This investigation was practically completed before the end of 1883, and it was decided to establish a factory for the wholesale production of optical glass, of both the old and the new varieties. The first price-list of the Jena Glass Works, issued in 1886, contained 44 optical glasses, of which 19 were new. By the employment of these and other new glasses which have since been added to the list, many important improvements have been effected in the lens systems of microscopes, telescopes, and photographic cameras. The Jena factory has always carried on its work hand in hand with scientific research, and in the course of its development other new branches of manufacture have been taken up. The most notable of these are the production of the well-known "normal" thermometer glass, and glasses characterized by special powers of withstanding heat and chemical attack, which have rendered them very important for both scientific and commercial uses. The translation and editing by J. D. and Alice Everett deserve praise.

The researches of Fernand Baldensperger, the successor of the late Joseph Texte as professor of comparative literature at the University of Lyons, are well known to students of the Romantic period. His learned monograph on Gottfried Keller has been followed by a series of minuter studies on the relations between French, German, and English literatures from the end of the eighteenth to the middle of the nineteenth century, among the more recent being one in the *Journal of Comparative Literature* on the influence of Lewis's 'Monk' in France. His latest work, 'Goethe en France: Étude de littérature comparée' (Paris: Hachette), is a stately octavo of some four hundred pages, traversing the whole history of Goethe's influence on French literature from the first critique of 'Clavigo' in the *Journal Encyclopédique* in 1774 to the present day. The history of this influence M. Baldensperger divides into four parts, which represent chronologically the growth of interest in Goethe and his works—first, as the author of 'Werther,' secondly, as the dramatic and lyric poet, thirdly, as the scientist and philosophic novelist, and, lastly, as a remarkable personality typical of modernity. The whole is an illuminating synthesis of a great poet's influence on a foreign literature, carried out in a most comprehensive spirit, and devoid of all merely erudite critical apparatus to distract the scholarly reader. The specialist is to be appeased, however, by the publication of a supplementary Bibliography in the near future.

The salient feature of the *National Geographic Magazine* for March is Mr. Henry Gannett's description of the Philippines, which is a summary of useful information, including a topographic account of the larger islands, and facts about the climate, products, and people. The uniformity of the climate is remarkable, the range in the monthly mean temperatures of the year at Manila being "only 7 degrees —*i. e.*, from 77 degrees in January to 84 degrees in May." The monthly range in Washington is 46 degrees, and the highest temperature on record in that city is 104 degrees, which is 4 degrees above the highest in Manila; the lowest is —14 degrees, or 74 degrees below the lowest in Manila. The fertility of the soil is shown by the fact that a "few thousand square feet, the area of an ordinary city house lot, are sufficient to provide the Tao and his family with all that they require—a few bananas, a little rice, and *camotes* or sweet potatoes." This number of the magazine also contains Mr. H. B. Miller's account of Harbin, the centre of the Mantchurian railway system, which was originally published in the series of Daily Consular Reports. The illustrations are numerous and well-chosen, and a copy of the map of Korea and Mantchuria, with inset plans of Port Arthur and Vladivostok, prepared by the War Department, is issued as a supplement to the magazine.

In the customary generous bill of fare in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for March we have found food for thought in some of the minor items. Amid sums in the hundreds and thousands "gratefully accepted" by vote of the Corporation, it is refreshing to meet with an "anonymous gift of $5, for the purchase of books on Dutch History for the College Library." The amount cannot go far, but the example should. Significant now is the report of the annual meeting of the Harvard Club of Japan at Tokyo on October 20, last, by a Japanese member. Among the obituaries we remark the death in Iowa of a New Hampshire man of the class of 1843, a colonel during the civil war, afterwards associate justice of the Supreme Court of Wyoming Territory, "where he was active in obtaining the full enfranchisement of women." In pathetic contrast is the biography of a member of the class of 1862, who left college in his junior year to enlist for the rebellion as a Mississippian, and afterwards became a leading educator, but he would never reknit old associations with his Northern classmates. His want of a degree kept him from obtaining a Southern professorship, and, on this transpiring, the College was induced to bestow the degree out of course. "Before he could receive it, he was struck down by paralysis."

A list of books on economics compiled by Benjamin Rand, Ph.D., helpful to students and librarians, will be found in the Boston Public Library Bulletin for March. It consists of the titles of 551 works, with prices annexed, by 384 authors. Another list shows the notable place Whistler occupied in art and literature, gathering thirty-one titles of books by, about, or illustrated by him, and eighty-six magazine articles having reference to him.

Perhaps the most remarkable instance in recent times of the rapid development of a purely virgin region into a rich and prosperous state is to be found in the Malay Peninsula. In a communication to the London *Times*, Sir Frank Swettenham, since 1874 a resident British official and now the Governor of the Straits Settlement, thus summarizes the facts: "In less than thirty years four small Malay States, jungle-covered, pathless, unknown, have been turned into flourishing communities with a total revenue of over two millions sterling per annum, a trade of ten millions sterling per annum, three hundred and fifty miles of excellent railway, thousands of miles of roads and telegraphs, great public buildings, schools, hospitals, waterworks—in fact, all the machinery of the most modern administration—with no debt of any sort, and a balance of over one and a half millions, ready to be spent on further railway extension and other works of development." Three things have contributed to this great success—the tin mines, cheap Chinese labor, and, most important of all, able and intelligent rulers. For it can hardly be doubted that if the British Government had failed to secure men to represent it who sought to understand those whom they ruled, and who made their interests their chief aim, the country would have remained practically a pathless jungle.

The late Parke Godwin was among the celebrities whom Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, secured for his gallery, and we now have from that photographic studio a strong and faithful likeness of him on a half-life-size scale. The physical and mental vigor of the editor, writer and orator, so long a familiar figure in New York, is well exhibited in this print.

—Houghton, Mifflin & Co. publish simultaneously two more volumes of their Centenary Emerson, 'Conduct of Life' and 'Society and Solitude.' The editor's notes and introductions throw much valuable light on the Essays, and qualify some opinions that have heretofore had wide currency. Both books belong to the second half of Emerson's life, if such a division is a valid one. The editor's notes have, in each volume, a general introduction covering the period elapsing in each case since the publication of the next previous volume. These introductions are particularly interesting as showing Emerson's relation to the anti-slavery conflict in the fifties and to the civil war and its outcome in the Reconstruction period. But the relation of the two volumes to these decades is not so close as has been commonly supposed. The Essays had all served as lectures, and the lectures had taken up into themselves much matter of earlier date, so that those who have inferred from them Emerson's immediate character, have frequently been building on the sand. At the same time it is plain that Emerson had a later manner, broadly represented by these essays, which was different from the earlier, more sci-

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entific, more concrete, more practical, more generally apprehensible. His editor finds it less the manner of the preacher, more that of the lecturer. Remaining "to his native centre fast," Emerson ran out the application of his doctrine more and more into men's everyday affairs. Of the editor's special introductions, that to the essay on Clubs is the most elaborate, showing in what manner and degree Emerson was a clubbable man. In the notes we find some repetitions, but the fresh part is always dominant. Mr. Edward Emerson's success in identifying the individuals of his father's miscellaneous company of persons and quotations is quite remarkable. His cross-references to other essays, and especially to the poems, are an agreeable device. The quotations from Emerson's journal are most welcome, so often have they a pungency denied to the deliberate public form. The son's memory, as in the earlier volumes, furnishes many interesting circumstances and traits. We are told that the "Farming" essay was originally called "The Man with the Hoe," anticipating the title of Millet's picture and Mr. Markham's poem. We had hoped that Mr. Edward Emerson's art training would make him a bolder critic than he is here of some of his father's fanciful constructions in the "Art" essay.

—If we are to credit the statements of the editor of 'The Story of the Lopez Family: A Page from the History of the War in the Philippines' (Boston: James H. West Co.), nothing quite like this collection of letters has ever before "been received from the 'dreamy East.'" In fact, the whole thing is very much in the superlative degree. The book is published primarily, it is to be supposed, in order to give to the public the letters which passed back and forth between the Lopezes—at Manila—and Sixto Lopez and his sister Clemencia when in Hong Kong, and later in the United States endeavoring to secure from the President an order for the release of three of their brothers, who had been arrested by Gen. J. F. Bell in the course of his campaign, and who were being released, as a result of the close of that campaign, almost at the same time the President was refusing to interfere. These letters had already appeared in Senate Document 331, Fifty-seventh Congress, first session, which has had wide publicity, and they were there accompanied by the quite complete summary of the facts brought out not only by them, but also by other evidence on the case, written by Judge Magoon, law officer of the War Department. Not satisfied with this summary, the editor of these letters, Canning Eyot, is rather bitter and sarcastic in discussing portions of it. The book does not, however, publish Judge Magoon's statement of the case; hence the Senate document referred to is still the fairest source of reference for those who are particularly concerned about this case. The editor has employed some forty-five pages out of the two hundred odd in introducing the Lopez family to us and making the Philippine revolution centre about them, and his comments on the letters as they proceed are frequently as long as or longer than the letters themselves. Even those who think his cause a good one are likely to find his exaggerations wearisome. He speaks of a lady member of a Boston family as one "whose kindness to Miss Lopez will do more for the real peace of the Philippines than 'Cæsar's legions,' and more to heal the wound than the combined wisdom of statesmen." He tells us that a certain ex-Rough Rider officer and ex-sheriff of New Mexico, who for reasons of his own was on intimate terms with the Lopezes in Manila, "probably knows more about the Filipinos than any other American in the Philippines." He assures us that "these letters will become historical." Reiterating what Sixto Lopez has frequently said, he asserts that José Rizal's "final dictum was that there was no salvation for their country short of separation from Spain," which Rizal himself denied with his last breath, not to say in his best-known writings. Among the photographs, which in the main are devoted to reproducing the Lopez family before us, one is of José Maria Basa of Hong Kong, who is called "the Grand Old Man of the Filipinos."

—"The Dispatches of William Perwich," which have been edited by Mr. M. Beryl Curran for the Royal Historical Society, relate chiefly to the affairs of France during the years 1669-1677. Perwich was an English agent in Paris, but beyond this fact little is known about him save that he had an excellent command of French and was thoroughly familiar with the means of procuring political gossip. It is quite clear from the smallness of his salary that he did not belong to the higher ranks of the diplomatic service, and a letter of 1677 from Lord Montagu to Arlington shows that his personal habits interfered with his efficiency as a collector of intelligence. "Mr. Perwich," says Montagu, "is at a stand, though he can seldom stand, for he is most eternally drunk." But, with all his shortcomings, Perwich must have had some useful attainments besides his knowledge of the Bohemian quarter and his acquaintance with spies. The information which he supplied to Sir. James Williamson and Lord Arlington was kept distinct from the other French dispatches, and at certain moments (for instance, in 1672) seems to have been thought highly important. "The special value of the Perwich Papers," says Mr. Curran, "consists in the light which they throw upon the history of France between the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle and that of Nimwegen. . . . The main portion of the letters is concerned with the designs of France to break up the Triple Alliance and to increase the power of the Great Monarch, both on land and sea." There is less in these letters than we might hope to find regarding the plot of Roux de Marsilly and the Treaty of Dover. By way of compensation, De Rohan's conspiracy of 1674 is described with remarkable minuteness. One is strongly impressed by the amount of miscellaneous detail which Perwich sees fit to transmit. He might almost have received his training as a writer of news-letters, to judge from many of his entries. When he begins to make citations from Nostradamus we see that the political correspondence of the seventeenth century covered a wide field. While these papers are not of anything like primary importance, they throw some light on one of the most important periods in the reign of Louis XIV.

—The late Prof. E. A. Freeman did not like the manner in which Mr. Augustus J. C. Hare compiled his guide-books, and took occasion to express his convictions in print in terms that contained in vigor and precision what they lacked in sweetness. The English-speaking travelling world does not appear to share Professor Freeman's views on that subject. It has continued to buy and to read Mr. Hare's books in increasing numbers, and to find through them an easy and flowery path to archæological and historical culture. His 'Walks in Rome' (Macmillan) has now reached its sixteenth edition, and has been subjected to thorough revision, partly by the author before his death a year ago, and partly by Mr. St. Clair Baddeley, whose interest in Roman topography we have not been allowed to forget. "The main part of the revision is naturally concerned with the changes that have taken place in Rome in recent years through rebuilding and excavation, and there is something of the Jekyll-Hyde puzzle in it. The reader is left to reconcile as best he can the familiar woes of Mr. Hare over the destruction by the "Sardinian" Government of all the mediæval beauty of Rome, with the archæological smiles of Mr. Baddeley over the discoveries that have thus been brought to light. It is a pity that the references to ancient matters could not have been done by a less amateurish hand. There has been improvement in this direction, but the revision has not been carried far enough. Old blunders have been in many instances perpetuated, Canina's authority being still cited for identifications long since given up by scholars; and on newer points the not always safe speculations of Comm. Boni (who is justly praised) have been blindly followed without regard to the judgment of archæologists upon them. The writer, perhaps, is unacquainted with German, and does not know that other persons than two or three Englishmen and one Italian have done something with the study of Roman topography since Canina's time. Archæologists who, in their turn, may not be acquainted with Mr. Baddeley's achievements in their field, will doubtless be edified by his statement in the preface: "Owing to the munificence of his friend, Mr. Lionel Phillips, the writer has been enabled to bring entirely within prospect of completion a design for reaching the Forum of Nerva and isolating the Temple of Antoninus and Faustina by means of excavating the Basilica Æmilia, which he conceived independently in 1898, and which, with the cordial co-operation of the Italian authorities, has already borne substantial results. For this his sincere thanks are due to [Baccelli, Fiorilli, and Boni]."

—Prof. A. G. Billaudeau's 'Recueil de Locutions Françaises,' carefully revised by Prof. A. Antoine (Paris: Boyveau & Chevillet; New York: G. E. Stechert), contains some fifty thousand words and phrases in current colloquial or literary use, with their idiomatic English equivalents—a most serviceable adjunct to student and teacher, and of hardly less value to those whose approximately exact bilingualism often fails them in this particular respect; for there is in translation admittedly no task more difficult than the rendering of stock or proverbial phrase without any loss of raciness, of the *goût du terroir*. As might naturally be expected, however, the English versions here and there convey a slightly foreign flavor. "Chercher une aiguille dans une botte de

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foin" is "to look for a needle in a haystack," not "a stack of hay." "Un amour d'enfant" may be rendered literally "a love of a child," not a "darling"; "Il est dans le bourbier," by "He is in a mess" or "a pickle" rather than by "mud" or "hole." "Bourre," as applied to literary work, finds its equivalent in "padding," rather than in "stuff" or "trash"; "Calendes grecques" is as familiar in English as in French, and needs no explanation, though we know of an alderman who proposed to defer discussion "aux *quarante* Grecs," when seeking to give a motion what our Canadian neighbors call the six months' hoist. "Prendre la cendre et le cilice" loses in "doing penance" what conventional "sackcloth and ashes" would preserve. "Dire son confiteor" we usually translate by "cry *peccavi*." "C'est un vrai *melon*" is slang, and better conveyed in "duffer" than in "muff." "Pot de vin" would (by Americans, at all events) be better understood as "graft" than as "a good-will." "On ne peut pas peigner un cheval qui n'a pas de crins" finds more than one paraphrase, but we know of none more precise than that which suggests the impossibility of relieving a Highlander of his breeches, once offered by a Scotch schoolboy as conjectural vernacular for *Ex nihilo nihil fit*.

HENRY VILLARD.

Memoirs of Henry Villard, Journalist and Financier. 1835-1900. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1904. 2 vols. Maps and portrait illustrations.

Born in Speyer in 1835, and arriving in this country only in 1853, at the age of eighteen, Heinrich Hilgard, the future Henry Villard, is truly to be reckoned among the emigrant "Forty-eighters." The Revolution both enlisted his boyish sympathies and brought him into conflict with the authorities, drew upon him the censure of his conservative father (a member of the Bavarian judiciary), and so perturbed the scheme of his university education as to make the New World seem the only escape from declassification in the Old. This youthful tragedy is outlined in the Introduction to these Memoirs, the only chapter not proceeding directly from Mr. Villard's pen, and avowedly the merest abstract of the full and engaging narrative of his Fatherland days written in German in behalf of his family and transatlantic friends, for whom it was privately printed after his death in 1900. A judge of physiognomy, however, will discover in the large head and idealistic expression of the boy of thirteen, as shown in the daguerreotype group, a sufficient explanation of want of studious application and pliability to the conventional mould.

The special attractiveness of the United States, as compared with France, England, South America, or Australia, lay in the fact of an antecedent family migration to Belleville, Ill., in the early thirties, embracing his great-uncle and uncle Hilgard, men of character and training and democratic principles, whose expatriation had all the moral significance of the *Mayflower* pilgrimage. The young Hilgard took ship from Hamburg for New York, and landed penniless and speechless, for he knew nothing of the English language. The first year was spent in the most discouraging endeavors to gain a livelihood, in the course of a slow Westing which gave him a bitter but useful acquaintance with Ohio and Indiana before he finally joined his kinsmen in their thrifty and hospitable rural settlement. These adventures are treated in considerable detail, and are interesting not more because of their contrast with the autobiographer's final attainment of fortune and distinction, than because of their vivid suggestion of immigrant hardship at a time when the country was still far from being overpopulous, and in the case of a nature touched with genius.

Most important for the young Hilgard's future was the unrecognized beginning of the civil war in the Kansas-Nebraska struggle, and this, after some futile attempts to study law at Belleville and Peoria, led him into politics and journalism, inevitably by way of the Free Soil party. To this period belongs a naïve plan of German free-soil colonization in Kansas—prophetic of larger and solider projects in maturer years, and demonstrative of the power to persuade and to inspire confidence in his schemes which were afterwards to be so brilliantly illustrated. The Frémont campaign led him to become the editor and ultimate proprietor of a German party organ in Racine, Wisconsin, while Eastern visits laid the foundations of an extensive acquaintance with the chief editors and newspaper offices of New York, particularly of the *Tribune* and the *Staats-Zeitung*. He passed from being a Western canvasser for the latter journal to reporting for it the Lincoln-Douglas debates of 1858. His journalistic career was now fixed, and, even when in Eastern employ, the West became the special field of his activity and development, and of that contact with public characters which served him so much in stead in his own rise to prominence and power. His familiarity with Lincoln in particular, whom he saw daily after his election at his home in Springfield, Illinois, and accompanied on his journey to Washington as far as New York, gives an historic value to the pages in which his observations are set down—from the intimate talk about religious belief, in a box-car at a lonely railroad station in Illinois, to the scene where Senator Henry Wilson takes Mr. Villard to the White House to relate the disaster to the Union army at Fredericksburg—the first unofficial tidings. Here is to be noticed the repulsion which the coarser side of Lincoln's thought and speech caused the foreigner who had roughed it in the West without being subdued to what he worked in. But while it was hard through such a veil to read in advance the greatness of "the first American"—in Lowell's phrase—Mr. Villard judges his true merits with fulness of admiration, and leaves the Lincoln legend unsullied except on the side of breeding.

Before the combatants of the civil war had come out into the open, and even before he reported Lincoln's nomination at the Chicago convention, Mr. Villard was sent to the Colorado Pike's Peak gold fields, and was the first and sole passenger by stage-coach to the budding Denver. This interlude of the Memoirs has an agreeable *al fresco* flavor, abounds in spirited and buoyant description, and is marked by incidents, like the wrecking of Horace Greeley's stage by a herd of buffaloes, that recall a time long past. Between Mr. Villard's witnessing Lincoln's inauguration and his own return from New York after a consultation with his new employer, James Gordon Bennett, founder of the *Herald*, occurred the Baltimore riot against the passage of the Sixth Massachusetts Regiment; and the consequent impediments to his progress to the capital usher in the war chronicle which the Memoirs now become for more than half their bulk.

As a field correspondent, Mr. Villard witnessed and graphically describes the first battle of Bull Run, took part in the first campaign in Kentucky and the middle South, entered Nashville in advance of Buell, was with that general in the retrieving of Shiloh on the second day, and at the so-called "siege" and occupation of Corinth, and in the scurrying retreat for the saving of Louisville against Bragg. The general view of these operations, together with the subsequent battle of Perryville, is a chapter out of the common, especially for Eastern readers. Transferred by the *Tribune* to the Army of the Potomac, Mr. Villard was in the midst of the slaughter at Fredericksburg, and the personal element in these military chapters nowhere stands out so fully and picturesquely as in the account of his evasion of Burnside's orders against civilians leaving the lines, and his carrying of the heart-breaking news to Washington, as already mentioned. Dispatched immediately to Port Royal, he was the sole newspaper correspondent who participated in Dupont's fruitless attack on the Charleston forts, being admitted on board the *New Ironsides*. His next employment was with Rosecrans at Murfreesboro' and to the very end of that general's career, including the siege of Chattanooga, but not the battle of Chickamauga, as he had to be sent North in consequence of a dangerous fever. This break in the continuity of his war narrative Mr. Villard laboriously repaired (in after years) by study of the Official Records (embracing both sides); and, intricate as the course of events is, and impossible of certain determination, the story falls little if any short, in interest, of those which proceed from the writer's immediate experience. The raising of the siege of Chattanooga is depicted with animation up to Sherman's advance on the day following the "battle above the clouds." Then Mr. Villard's tired pen dropped from his hands. Book VIII. opens with the briefest mention (in the third person) of the Wilderness campaign, from which Mr. Villard was again the earliest bearer of intelligence to Washington, and of the investment of Petersburg and the mine explosion. Recalled after that to Europe by his reconciled family, Mr. Villard ceased to be a journalist except for a brief period of service with the Chicago *Tribune*, at Washington and abroad.

While Burnside, Hooker, Garfield, Nelson, Thomas, Grant, Buell, Halleck, and Sherman are exhibited and estimated from a close point of view, Rosecrans is the chief study, as, on the Confederate side, is Gen. Bragg. Sherman's retirement from Kentucky was caused by an editor's misuse of a private letter from Mr. Villard, giving the current rumor of this far-seeing commander's "insanity." He figures in these volumes not as the conquering hero; nor does Grant, whose negligence at Pittsburgh Landing Mr. Villard cannot excuse. Burnside is visited with the severest censure

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of all. On the whole, we believe the most jaded reader of histories of the civil war will find here fresh matter of lively interest, and broad views of conditions like that of Washington during the formation of the Federal army, or of Kentucky before operations began, such as are hardly to be found elsewhere. The accompanying maps are sufficient for orientation.

The accident of marrying a Boston lady, the only daughter of William Lloyd Garrison, was the cause of an episode not to be overlooked, viz., Mr. Villard's engagement as secretary of the American Social Science Association, whose headquarters were in that city. This had an important bearing on the growth of the civil-service reform movement, and led to personal relations with Mr. Godkin, editor of the *Nation*, which culminated, in the days of Mr. Villard's financial success, in his purchase of that paper and the *Evening Post* in the interest solely of independent journalism, pure politics and honest standards of government.

The final chapter cannot well be summarized. It is a compact statement of the circumstances by which Mr. Villard, while residing in Germany in the early seventies, was called in to consult with bondholders of defaulting railroads in this country, with the result of his embarking in the completion of the transcontinental line of the Northern Pacific Railway, and becoming one of the financial magnates of Wall Street. This survey of a period of scant twenty years is more romantic than all that has gone before, being not less full of vicissitudes as well as of alternations of public applause and odium—"revivals, too, of unexpected change." Here is to be glimpsed the expansion under prosperity of one of Nature's noblemen, a public benefactor in both hemispheres, the idol of the northern Pacific Coast, to which he had opened the overland approach, the honored and fêted son of his native country. If Lincoln was the chief historic personage of the first volume, Bismarck is of the second, and nowhere does Mr. Villard as a writer appear to better advantage than in rehearsing his memorable conversations with the ex-Chancellor at Friedrichsruhe. We have room for but a single quotation (vol. ii., p. 348):

"The Prince then began to question his guest regarding himself, about his early life in Germany, how long he had been in the United States, and about the course of his career there. He wanted to know how many miles of railroad he had built, in what time it had been done, how many steamships had been under his control, how many men he had employed, being very much surprised that 15,000 Chinamen had been among them, and saying: 'Why, you had a whole army corps under your command!' He asked how much capital Mr. Villard had been obliged to raise and how it was raised, and about the relative value of white and Chinese labor. He inquired whether he had named Bismarck, the capital of Dakota, after him, to which the guest had to reply that the place had been founded and baptized before he had anything to do with the Northern Pacific. Bismarck remembered that he had received thence telegraphic greetings from the German participants in the Northern Pacific opening excursion, and asked whether it had a future. In reply, Mr. Villard had to confess that it was not then very prosperous, and he explained that all the capitals of the several American States were as a rule of slow growth. This the Prince could not understand in the light of the contrary European experience. He remarked that what his guest had accomplished in a foreign country, he never could have done in the Fatherland, owing to tradition and to the clinging to accustomed ways so characteristic of old countries. Did he not encounter a great deal of prejudice among native Americans against him as a foreigner in the pursuit of his undertakings? To this Mr. Villard replied that, on the contrary, he had found his chief financial backing and his main support among them, and that there was no people on earth among whom enterprise and energy prevailed to a greater extent, or that more readily appreciated those who possessed such qualities. To this the Prince said that he was well aware that the Americans were the most progressive people in the world, for which he admired them, but it was new to him that they were so free from national jealousies in appreciating merit."

The index to these handsome volumes ensures their utility as works of reference. They will attract a wide class of readers in every part of the continent.

THE METRIC FALLACY.

The Metric Fallacy, by Frederick A. Halsey; and *The Metric Failure in the Textile Industry*, by Samuel S. Dale. D. Van Nostrand Co. 8vo, pp. 231.

The adoption of the metric system would have real advantages. It would also have real disadvantages. Are the former so assured and so great as unmistakably to overbalance the latter?

The serious advantages of the metric system, itself, are two. The first arises from its decimal subdivisions, and this, so far as it goes, is a sound argument for the full adoption of it. Yet we are apt to overrate it, because we think of the conveniences of our decimal money, without considering how much more frequently sums of money have to be added by ordinary people than weights and measures have to be arithmetically operated upon. The second advantage of the metric system lies in that system's furnishing a universal commercial language for weights and measures. We believe this to be the greater advantage of the two; but it affords no argument for any modification of our laws, since everybody is already free to express himself in metric units. The law of 1866 (due to Messrs. Kasson and Julius E. Hilgard) protects him in doing so, and he is sure to be understood. Other advantages are claimed for the system, but any impartial person will easily satisfy himself that they amount to little. Thus, is is averred that the simple and elegant relations between the different kinds of units of the metric system would be important. No doubt they would for a small number of scientific men, not a hundred thousand all told. But these all use the system already. They seem to be very desirous that the unlearned, too, should be able with equal readiness to interconvert mass, length, and capacity; but really this cannot be a vital advantage even for the scientific class; and when it is divided by the ratio of the whole population to the number of this class, it evidently becomes insignificant. For the great body of the people, the relations between the old units of mass, length, and capacity are about as handy. They are not generally very well known, for the reason that they are not generally very important.

It is further pretended that the adoption of the metric system would lighten the tasks of schoolchildren so much as to afford an argument of national importance for its adoption. The idea presumably is that they would no longer have to learn the tables of weights and measures. But, as matters now are in this country, children need to be required to learn but a small part of those tables; and that little they would still need to know just the same. For, not to dwell on the fact that the books that speak of the old measures, as well as the things made according to them, would still endure, Mr. Halsey conclusively shows in the volume before us that the old units would persist, and with them the need of knowing them. Finally, it is said that another advantage of the change would be that manufactured articles would be made of the same sizes the world over; that such things as bolts, screw-threads, machinery, textile fabrics, etc., would have such uniformity that our manufacturers could begin to compete in the markets of Continental Europe. Surprising as it may be, there actually are intelligent and educated men so utterly ignorant of the condition of their own country's business and of its relations with other countries, and who are so ignorant of their own ignorance, that they are not ashamed to talk more or less like this before the faces of those who are acquainted with such matters. Much more worthy of attention is the counterclaim that our abandonment, in our manufactures of a unit of the international importance of the English inch would bring disaster upon the country. This is, indeed, the greater of the two main arguments against Congress proceeding any further than it has already done in the direction of favoring the metric system. The other argument is drawn from the intrinsic inconvenience of a decimal system, especially when employed, not merely as a part of language, a mode of expressing quantities, but as regulating doings and makings.

That the number *ten* is an unfortunate base of numeration is generally agreed by those who have inquired into it. Indeed, it is so decidedly so that several men otherwise remarkably intelligent have actually proposed that it should be given up, and that a power of two (they mostly prefer sixteen) should be used in place of it. This is sheer insanity. Yet it is worth notice as showing that our retention of *ten* is pure conservatism, and as consequently affording a warning against the follies to which unmeasured rationalism in regard to weights and measures, like all unquantitative discussion about quantities, may lead. The effect of the inconvenience of this base of numeration has been that while it has mainly governed our expression of quantities, yet our practical dealings with these have broken away from our system of expression and have been regulated by other factors of subdivision. There are two principal cases. In the first place, when our subdivisions are used additively, as, for example, in weighing anything by placing weights in one pan of a balance, everybody knows the great convenience of successive bisections. We virtually put to the balance a series of questions answerable by *yes* or *no;* and the most expeditious way of reaching the desired result is by so putting the questions as always to bisect the possibilities. In this case, subdivision by ten causes a loss of time and energy amounting to 2.35 per cent. The other principal case is where it is desired to have within certain limits so many sizes of some article, say screw-bolts, that the ratio of each size to the

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size below it shall never exceed a certain value. If there be an unnecessary variety of sizes, not only will more capital be locked up in keeping them on hand, which aggregates something, but, what may rise to any degree of importance, in an emergency the particular size needed may not be found in the store.

Take a typical case of continual happenings. A refrigerator car of strawberries from California broke down in the desert for want of a bolt. But that bolt was of the Sellers system of sizes, which prevails the world over, except in England, and even there is much used. Here, there is no other system, and therefore the size wanted was sure to be procured in the nearest store, and was found, and the car went on after half a day's delay. Suppose, however, that the metric system had been in use, with the Armengaud system of bolts, now struggling for existence in France against the Sellers and Whitworth systems. That system has forty-one different sizes for the interval covered by thirty-one sizes in the Sellers system. The chance of replacing the bolt in time to save the precious cargo would have been much less. Besides these two principal inconveniences of decimal subdivisions, there are others of an obscure nature whose effects are certain to be felt by every mechanic.

Of the main disadvantage which the change would involve, we must now endeavor to give our readers some slight idea. Although manufactures engage but a quarter of our gainfully occupied population, and do not therefore constitute our highest material interest, yet their annual products amount probably, by this time, to full equality with those of Great Britain, Germany, and France, put together, even after subtracting from the nominal value of ours 25 per cent. for the illusory magnification produced by our tariff. Our population, it will be remembered, is only half of theirs. We owe this proud position to several causes, of which the first —to generalize as much as possible—may be said to be American systematization. The most prominent effect of this has been the supremacy of American machinery, which is absolute. The greatest factor in the attainment of this supremacy, greater perhaps than the American genius for simplification or than American ingenuity, was, we believe, the thorough systematization of American machinery early brought about by the labors of Eli Perkins, by which the dimensions of the different parts were brought into simple relations to the inch, so that those parts could readily be replaced—a feature only tardily copied by Europe. The result has been to impart to the English inch an international character embodied in real manufactured things and in the tools with which to make those things. This internationality does not apear in ordinary expressions of quantity, but has a real existence, and already rivals the *real* internationality of the centimetre. Ultimately, if we sustain the inch, one or other of two results must be reached: either the real internationality of the inch must gain a clear ascendency, or else the metric countries must be forever stunted in the growth of their manufactures.

Now we are assured by those who are the best qualified to judge of the matter that, were any law to prevent our manufacturers from making things to inch measure, or which should prevent obligatory contracts to do so, the position of our machinery abroad would be irrecoverably surrendered —to England, if she had not already taken a like step; but in any case, would be gone. The understanding under which our machines had been sold, that parts should be replaced, would be dishonored, and we disgraced. Our own country would be flooded with English machinery, unless it were kept out by heavy duties the effect of which would be to bring all our manufactures to the verge of ruin, or further. A large proportion of all the machinery now in the country would have to be thrown away. As for the cost of the change, something may be guessed of it from the fact that the cost of the designs and tools to manufacture a single machine will sometimes amount to nearly a hundred thousand dollars. All this is the best testimony we have.

We know ourselves that the metric system has never been effectually introduced into any country without the aid of penal provisions of a severity entirely unknown to our people; and there has been no people among which they have been more necessary than they would be among ours. Were such measures enacted here, in a few years they would be repealed amid a storm of popular indignation, almost doubling the havoc and confusion, and bringing well-deserved ignominy upon the heads of the doctrinaires whose conceit and pretension had drawn such disaster upon the country; and our universities, where their leaders are, would suffer in consequence.

How are we to estimate the probable amount of this disadvantage in dollars? The only sane way of doing so will be to be guided mainly by a critical consideration of the testimony of those of our great manufacturers who are in the habit of using measurements with real precision, say with errors not greatly exceeding one hundred-thousandth part of the quantity measured. These are the people who make our machinery, etc. For it is certain that their great capital of seven hundred millions cannot be seriously impaired without the injury being felt, first, by all other manufacturers, and soon by every unit of our population. It is no mere theoretical question upon which physicists or other scientists are, as such, competent, to lay down the law, but is a practical question of tremendous moment, which practical men best comprehend.

The bill at present before the committee of the House contains two provisions. One of these is that "on and after January 1, 1907, the weights and measures of the metric system shall be the legal standard of weights and measures of and in the United States." We doubt much whether this provision, in the absence of the penal clause usually attached to it in introducing the metric system, amounts to a row of pins. As matters now are, if a court had before it a contract in which a Rhine-inch was mentioned and was defined as 1.03 United States inches, would not that court hold the contract valid? If so, after that enactment, why should not a contract which mentioned an English inch, defining it as 2.54 centimetres, be equally enforced? The contract would express itself in terms of the standards that would be legal "of and in the United States." The other provision of the bill is, that immediately "all the Departments of the Government of the United States, in the transaction of all business requiring the use of weight and measurement, except in completing the survey of the public lands, shall employ and use only the weights and measures of the metric system." In examining all the printed matter put forth by the committee, we have been struck by its avoidance of any explanation of the phrase "employ and use." Does it mean *use in practice* or *use in expression?* If the former, and the bill becomes a law, no chart that expresses depths of water in fathoms can legally be used; if one of our ships should lose a bolt, it can never be supplied, but the vessel must be condemned; the vast collection of designs in the archives of the Navy Department can never be consulted, with a thousand other consequences equally ridiculous. Common sense protests that that cannot be the meaning. Then, the meaning of the phrase "employ and use" must be to *use in expression.* When an inch is meant, it must be called 2.54 centimetres. That would be an innocent provision. But the ambiguity was deliberately intended by those who have been behind the bill. They expect in this way to divide the struggle into two parts, getting the bill passed by quietly representing to those who hesitate to vote for it that it amounts to little more than a requirement that quantities shall be expressed metrically; while, after the bill once becomes a law, they will insist that the inch must really be abandoned, to the endless embarrassment of business in the Departments. They hope to dictate afterward their own interpretation. This should not be allowed. The phrase should be precisely defined in the bill.

The volume before us contains two distinct works. Each contributes something definite, pertinent, and irrefragable to the controversy. In the first, Mr. Halsey shows that the old units are still used a good deal in all the metric countries—*nominally,* even in France; and really, elsewhere. We regret, however, that the author builds too much on this fact, and that, generally speaking, he too much dilutes weighty arguments with others that are almost trivial, if not sometimes downright fallacious. This fault is avoided by Mr. Dale, who, on the positive side, brings forward facts less open to general observation and very instructive, showing that the English inch is "employed and used" in France and throughout Europe, both in practice and in expression in the textile industry, side by side with the centimetre.

Citizenship of the United States. By Frederick Van Dyne, LL.M., Assistant Solicitor of the Department of State of the United States. Rochester, N. Y.: The Lawyers' Coöperative Publishing Co. 1904. Pp. 385.

It is strange that a topic of such fundamental importance as that of American citizenship should have thus far received so little attention from publicists. Of the two books heretofore written on the subject, that of Alexander Porter Morse, which appeared twenty years ago, is an erudite treatise, and still possesses value for special students, but Mr. Morse is a civilian educated at the New Orleans bar, and his point of view is continental rather than Anglo-Saxon; moreover, the American doctrine of citizenship has taken a more defin-

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ite shape since he wrote than it had attained in all the years before. To disclose this doctrine clearly and concisely is the object of Mr. Van Dyne's book, which not only is the best on American citizenship which has thus far appeared, but will unquestionably have a strong effect in settling into steady practice decisions of the courts and executive rulings on the question of citizenship.

In his first chapter Mr. Van Dyne treats of citizenship by birth in the United States, and gives a clear exposition of the common-law doctrine which was finally announced to be the American doctrine by the Supreme Court in 1898. Whatever can be said of it, it is, as Mr. Van Dyne unfolds it, simplicity itself. Any one born in the United States, no matter what the nationality of his parents may be, no matter how brief their sojourn in the United States, no matter under what disabilities they themselves may labor in acquiring American citizenship, is, by the mere fact or accident of his birth, a citizen of the United States. Indians not taxed and persons born in foreign embassies and legations in the United States, which, by a fiction of international law, are not territory of the United States, are the only exceptions. This always was the law of the United States, and the Civil Rights Act and Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution are merely declaratory of the common-law doctrine. But the doctrine that a child's citizenship follows that of his parents has been in the past held by some of the executive departments of the Government, denied by others, and occasionally adhered to by the courts. The result was a strange confusion. For instance, the State Department always held that an American-born Chinaman was entitled to protection while abroad as a native American citizen, but upon his return to an American port the Treasury Department classed him as an alien Chinese, and this was the ground taken by the Government in the test case brought in the Supreme Court. Pending the decision of the Court, the departments adhered to their opposing practices, and, in deciding against the United States, the Court really decided in favor of the practice of one of the Government departments.

In passing from the subject of citizenship by birth in the United States to that of citizenship by birth abroad, of American parents, we go from the common law to the statutes, and simplicity disappears; for if a child born abroad of an American father is, as our statute declares, a citizen of the United States, what is his status in a country which recognizes, just as we do, that mere birth within its boundaries confers citizenship? Undoubtedly, as Mr. Van Dyne shows, such a one is born to a dual allegiance, and two Governments may claim him until he himself can elect his nationality; but the claim of the country in which he is dwelling is the more effective claim of the two.

The second part of Mr. Van Dyne's book treats of citizenship by naturalization, and unravels the subject by citations from the laws, decisions of the courts and international commissions, and rulings of the State Department. Before foreign governments, it appears, we insist that certificates of naturalization issued by courts of the United States shall be accepted as proof of citizenship; but the State Department itself frequently rejects them as having been improvidently granted or fraudulently obtained, and many of them undoubtedly richly deserve rejection. We notice a citation by Mr. Van Dyne of a decision that a court of which the judge is *ex officio* the clerk, is not a court of record in the meaning of the law, and has not the right to naturalize aliens. The probate courts in Ohio answer this description, yet they are the principal courts for naturalization purposes in that State, and thousands of people hold their certificates. We can foresee the confusion which will follow when it shall have been definitely determined that these certificates are void and of no effect.

Mr. Van Dyne shows that a number of invalid certificates of naturalization have at different times been issued to Chinese. The original naturalization law of 1802, upon which our existing laws have been engrafted, provided for admission to citizenship of "free white persons" only, and an amendment in 1870 extended the privilege to "aliens of African nativity, and to persons of African descent." Therefore, Japanese, Burmese, Indians, even some Mexicans, as well as all Chinese, are ineligible to naturalization, which is reserved for Caucasians and negroes exclusively.

In discussing the rights of those who have taken incipient steps towards securing naturalization, or made what is technically termed "the declaration of intention," Mr. Van Dyne establishes the important fact that the policy of this Government has departed from the position taken by Secretary Marcy in the famous Koszta case, leaving it a single instance; and the extreme contention of Mr. Marcy now depends for support upon the peculiar surrounding circumstances, and is not to be considered an enduring declaration of a principle. It will be remembered that Koszta was an Austrian subject who engaged in the Hungarian rebellion of 1848, and escaped by way of Turkey to this country, where he lived two years, and, after making the declaration of intention to become a citizen of the United States, returned to Turkey on business. At Smyrna he was taken into custody by Austrian officials, and put on board an Austrian man-of-war to be carried to Trieste. The captain (Ingraham) of an American man-of-war lying in Turkish waters demanded and secured his release, and in supporting this action Mr. Marcy took the ground that, as Koszta had a domicile in the United States, he was vested with American nationality; but this has given place to the stricter rule, as laid down by Secretary Olney, that "a mere declaration of intention to become a citizen cannot clothe the declarant with any of the international rights of citizenship."

A unique case of resumption of American citizenship by special act of Congress is given in the chapter on "Naturalization by Marriage." Nellie Grant, daughter of Gen. Grant, married Algernon Sartoris, a British subject, and thereby became, in accordance with the universal rule and our naturalization convention with Great Britain, a British subject. Upon her husband's death in 1896, she returned to the United States and petitioned Congress to be readmitted to American citizenship, and, by joint resolution of May 18, 1898, was readmitted. As it has been repeatedly held that "the nationality of origin of an American-born woman reverts upon the death of her alien husband if she is residing in the United States, or upon her returning to this country, if residing abroad," it must be concluded that the act of Congress in this case was unnecessary, and intended as an unusual compliment to a daughter of Gen. Grant. It is the only instance of Congress conferring citizenship upon an individual by name cited by Mr. Van Dyne, and, we believe, in our history.

The chapter on naturalization by treaty is chiefly of historical interest. Residents of Detroit were made citizens of the United States by our treaty of 1794 with Great Britain; of Louisiana by the treaty of 1803 with France; of Florida by the treaty of 1819 with Spain; of portions of Mexico by the treaties of 1848 and 1853 with Mexico; of Alaska by the treaty of 1867 with Russia. The treaty of 1898 with Spain left the status of the inhabitants of the ceded islands to the tender mercies of Congress. Mr. Van Dyne quotes the pertinent parts of the Supreme Court's decision in the case of Downes vs. Bidwell, and, if the chapter is not conclusive, it must be said that the subject itself is not concluded. Filipinos and Porto Ricans now receive under the law the protection of our passports while they are abroad, and are required to take the oath of allegiance to the Constitution of the United States, of which they are not citizens. When a second edition of Mr. Van Dyne's book comes to be printed, it is to be hoped that he will have a more satisfactory condition to chronicle.

The third part of the book is devoted to Passports, and the fourth to Expatriation. As there is no law declaring what constitutes loss of American citizenship, it would appear that the Executive generally contents itself with withdrawing its protection from those whose acts are inconsistent with preservation of domicile in the United States and performance of citizens' duties, without specifically declaring that expatriation has been accomplished.

An appendix gives the laws relating to citizenship and naturalization, and the naturalization conventions between this country and foreign Powers. The index, without being copious, appears to be adequate, and the work is notably free from typographical errors.

The Life of Lord Edward Fitzgerald, 1763-1798. By Ida A. Taylor. Pp. xii, 340. Index, portraits, and illustrations. New York: Brentano's.

Lord Edward Fitzgerald was without doubt one of the best and purest of those who have sacrificed themselves for what they believed to be the good of Ireland. His memory remains a precious possession to his countrymen. Sprung from the best blood of the country, closely related to Charles James Fox, the Napiers, and others of the highest English families, nurtured amidst refined surroundings, the friend of Sheridan and Madame de Genlis, who could have supposed that he would die alone in prison, from a wound received when resisting arrest, and that his remains would be consigned to a damp vault, far from those of his ancestors, in the city of which he and his wife were once the pride and ornament? The story of his life is admirably told by Miss Taylor, and is more absorbing than all but a few novels. She has availed herself of the best materials. The illustrations are

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well selected and artistically reproduced, and the work is altogether pleasant to take in hand.

It is as the revolutionist, Leader of the United Irishmen, that Lord Edward is generally thought of. Revolutionary sentiments seriously influenced him for only the last six years of his life, and it was not until within the last three that, like thousands of his fellow-countrymen, hopeless and driven to desperation by the refusal of effective reform, he irrevocably committed himself to armed insurrection. And even to the last he led a double life; those on earth to whom he was most attached, his mother and his wife, being left in ignorance of the extent to which his views had carried him. Many of his early years were spent in France with his brothers and sisters. Thither his mother, the Duchess of Leinster, had retired after a second marriage. It was as an explorer of Canadian wilds, and as an officer fighting against us in the War of Independence, that he first distinguished himself. At the last,

"the comparison of the two objects for which his blood had been shed, would seem to have been present with him; and when a visitor [to him dying in prison] reminded him of those old days, he replied—was it with a sense of a debt wiped out?—that it had been in a different cause that he had been wounded then; since at that time he had been fighting against liberty, now for it."

Never was there greater love between mother and son. Expecting her to visit him in 1786, he writes: "Do not stay too long at Oxford, for if you do I shall die with impatience before you arrive. I can hardly write, I am so happy." Later: "You are, after all, what I love best in the world. I always return to you, and find it is the only love I do not deceive myself in. . . . In thinking over with myself what misfortunes I *could* bear, I found there was one I *could not*—but God bless you." Seven years later, in full enjoyment of a happy marriage, he writes:

"I long for a little walk with you leaning on me, or to have a long talk with you sitting out in some pretty spot, of a fine day, with your long cane in your hand, working at some little weed at your feet, and looking down talking all the time. I won't go on in this way, for I should want to set out directly, and that cannot be."

His marriage to Pamela, then affianced to Sheridan, and possibly but in her sixteenth year, is a romance in itself. Miss Taylor is satisfied that Pamela was really what Madame de Genlis, her guardian, represented her to be, the daughter of a French father and an English mother, born in Newfoundland. Fortunately for himself, Lord Edward was never conscious how little worthy she was to make him permanently happy. As it was, he adored her to the last. Perhaps Irishmen generally would be more friendly to the negro race if they remembered the attachment that existed, during the latter half of Lord Edward's life, between him and one of them—poor Tony, who had found him wounded and senseless on a battlefield in America, who was his companion in all mutations of his fortunes the rest of his days, whose advice he was often glad to take, and whose grief when Lord Edward was "on his keeping" (that is, a hunted man) was that his "unfortunate face" rendered it impossible for him then to be of any real service to his beloved master. We wish Miss Taylor had told us something of Tony's fate after his master's death. How strange the changes brought about by time! Lord Edward's descendant, Mr. Wyndham, is now, under the British Government, virtually governor of Ireland. We rise from a perusal of Lord Edward's life under the impression that, whatever blessings the French Revolution brought to the rest of the world, it exercised an unhappy influence upon the fortunes of Ireland.

If Miss Taylor had studied the history of the war of the rebellion as conscientiously as she has studied that of the last years of the Irish Parliament and of 1798, we should have been spared the unworthy sneer to be found on page 184, concerning the bravery of Northern veterans at the battle of "Gettisburg."

Shelley's Adonais. Edited, with introduction and notes, by W. M. Rossetti and A. O. Prickard. Second Edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1903.

Thirteen years have passed since the Clarendon Press published the first edition of Mr. Rossetti's commentary on the 'Adonais.' The second edition, which lies before us, possesses a peculiar interest. The appearance of the commentary in 1890 was due to the fact that the poem was part of the prescribed reading for candidates for honors in the School of English Language and Literature then recently constituted at Oxford. The foundation of this school almost ranks as an Oxford "movement," since it signified that one of the great English universities was about to revolutionize its curriculum, and to raise the study of "Literæ Anglicæ" to the level of the "Literæ Humaniores." The specialists in English, who were mainly philologists in the narrower sense, refused to recognize in any way or to admit to their councils the representatives of classical scholarship—an exclusiveness that was bound to weaken their school, seeing that the greater part of English literature is barely intelligible to those who are unacquainted with the classics of Greece and Rome. The provisions of the new school were received with a fire of criticism from classical scholars. Mr. Churton Collins, the spokesman of all serious critics since the death of Matthew Arnold, prophesied that a "herd of imperfectly and erroneously disciplined teachers" would be let loose on England and the colonies, and that the whole level of "liberal instruction and study" would be degraded.

The publication of the 'Adonais' came very opportunely to point his moral. Mr. Rossetti knows nothing of the classics. Yet the Clarendon Press entrusted to him the editing of a poem which is modelled on a Greek elegy, and contains echoes of the dialogues of Plato and numerous adaptations of Æschylus, Euripides, Theocritus and Lucretius. The 'Adonais' has many of the qualities of an Alexandrian poem. It is full of conceits, is not always sincere (Byron, for instance, did not veil "all the lightnings of his song in sorrow"; he wrote an unfeeling epigram on "John Keats who was killed off by one critique"); above all, it is a poem of reminiscences written for a select and highly-educated audience. Mr. Rossetti, however, contented himself with quoting Mr. Andrew Lang's translation of Bion and Moschus, and ignored the other echoes of the classics, as well as some obvious reminiscences of Marlowe and Shakspere. This, then, was the text-book furnished to candidates for English honors by the Clarendon Press, which is a sort of Trust, and can count on its publications being adopted throughout Oxford's sphere of influence. If a scholar had offered to this famous press an edition of a play of Euripides, displaying the feeble erudition of Mr. Rossetti's commentary, he would have been promptly suppressed. But the study of English literature never has been taken seriously in England, and nothing shows that fact more plainly than the readiness of the Clarendon Press to stand sponsor for some of the English text-books that figure in the same list with its admirable editions of the Greek and Latin classics, and the dictionaries and grammars that are standard all over the world.

Mr. Churton Collins fell upon Mr. Rossetti, but the book was not withdrawn, and we now have a second edition which is a complete triumph for the classical scholars who were ignored when the school was organized. For Mr. Rossetti has called in the aid of Mr. A. O. Prickard, the well-known editor of Æschylus, and his name now appears with the original editor's on the title-page. When English specialists are reduced to enlisting classical scholars in this fashion, classical studies are avenged. But Mr. Rossetti and Mr. Prickard together have contributed no more to the new edition than they could glean from the criticism of Mr. Collins. All his parallel passages from classical and other literatures have been incorporated, with no further acknowledgment than the meagre prefatory note which states that "Some reviewers—I may name more especially Mr. Churton Collins—pointed out this requirement," viz., the need of references to classical originals. It would have been more honest to credit Mr. Collins in each case with the score or more of important corrections which have been adopted from his review. The book is now of some practical use to the student, but Mr. Rossetti's rather foolish notes remain. A good example is on stanza 22, where he remarks, on "the snake memory," "Shelley, however, had not the usual feeling of repulsion for snakes and serpents," and proceeds to prove it from the other poems. As a parallel for the "herd-abandoned deer" of stanza 33, he quotes Cowper, and ignores Hamlet's "stricken deer." On page 117, Mr. Collins having failed to point out the mistake, the editor still misquotes a famous line of Keats's "Ode to the Nightingale"; he writes:

"Forlorn! the very word is *as a knell.*"

It is a curious fact that many well-read persons will instinctively give "knell" for "bell" in this line, though there is no variant reading to support their preference. But it was reserved for Mr. Rossetti to make two mistakes in a phrase of three words.

In view of his forebodings as to the degrading effects on England and her colonies if the home-brewed School of English should be allowed to rank with the mellow humanities of a less progressive Oxford, it should reassure Mr. Collins to observe that, in the first four years recorded by the Oxford Calendar, 1897-1901, the total number of candidates for English honors

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was only sixteen men and forty-eight women, and the lists show no sign of increase.

Infection and Immunity. By George M. Sternberg, M.D., LL.D. Putnams. 1903.

The ordinary book-buyer would hardly be attracted by this title, although it is that of a popular work in a certain sense. It is a plain, somewhat diffuse, account of how certain serious and common diseases are caused, how some may be prevented and others avoided. It follows ordinary speech in accepting "disease germs" as equivalent to causes of disease; which, to say the least, is unfortunate. Common as it is, "disease germ" is not a happy term. It implies that a disease is a substantive entity, which grows as such. It is not. When we speak of disease germs, false conceptions, unless repelled by conscious effort, fill the mind, for we think in the same terms that we use in speech. But there *are* foreign entities which, having entered the human body, increase in number and sometimes in virulence, whose presence causes the derangements we call disease. They are not the disease; their consequences are the disease. When an investigator has the cholera spirillum under the microscope or in a culture medium, he is not looking at or experimenting with a case of cholera; but a colony of such spirilla will cause cholera, and, properly distributed, an epidemic of it. But, disregarding certain infelicities of expression, by calling attention to the real meaning and to the methods of infection, to the distinction between disinfectants and deodorants, and to the functions of each, to the possibility of absolutely exterminating certain serious diseases, and, speaking generally, by widening popular knowledge in the matter of public health, this little treatise is well adapted, as its author hoped it might be, for use in the higher institutions of secular learning.

If people generally could be made to understand and then to act upon the facts herein set forth, which are merely common property of advanced sanitarians, the mortality from particular diseases would decrease enormously. We should continue to die, but not from consumption, nor diphtheria, nor cholera; and typhoid fever would be as rare as smallpox is in a sane community. But many do not know, and not all of those who may be supposed to have such knowledge act upon it. Take an instance in point from the very text: "Experience shows that new levies of troops are especially subject to typhoid fever and other infectious camp diseases" (p. 134), which is very true and not new. But (*loc. cit.*) on account of the unsanitary conditions in the camps of the newly raised troops for our war with Spain, their typhoid death-rate was twenty-two times that of the regulars in peace. Gross unhealthfulness might easily have been foreseen, especially as the noxiousness of such camps is known to increase out of proportion to their size. Nevertheless, no one made it sufficiently clear to the War Department officials for them to refrain from establishing the enormous conglomerations of Thomas and Alger, where this all came true. The allegation that the annual rate was less by 7.34 per 1,000 than in the Civil War brings small consolation when one remembers that in 1861 the great armies in the field were constantly being reinforced by brigades of raw troops, substantially so much new material for disease, while those of 1898, except the comparatively small number sent across the Pacific, were disbanded in a few months. If intelligent officials having authority failed to exercise foresight or preventive control, we can hardly expect the ordinary citizen (persistent training being lacking) to appreciate the advantages of sanitation, nor, when inconvenient, to practise it.

We might wish that, in the interest of accurate language, the author had recognized its derivation and essential meaning and so have written "ptomaïnes" instead of "ptomaines," for he will surely encourage unlettered speech in those who style these products of decay "ptomanes." But as the diæresis is a contrivance *of* scholars, if not for scholars only, we may expect ptomaïnes to go the popular way of cocaïne. (The makers of aërated bread, we remember, adopted the diphthong Æ as their trademark—a brazen performance, truly.) It would have been better if our author had adhered to one person, instead of sometimes using the first and sometimes the third person. Nor is diffuseness an element of intelligibility. Overlooking such inelegances of style, we have here a practical work prepared from fulness of knowledge and sufficiently plain for easy comprehension. Not only are the scientific nuts cracked, but the shells have been entirely removed. The technical investment has been completely stripped without damage to the contents.

Studies in German Literature in the Nineteenth Century. By John Firman Coar, Professor in Adelphi College. The Macmillan Co. 1903.

It is not easy to formulate the conflicting impressions left in the reader's mind by a perusal of this book. Its theme, the influence of democratic ideals upon the development of German literature in the nineteenth century, is of absorbing interest, and cannot fail to appeal to all who see in literature not the whims and fancies of isolated individuals, but a manifestation of large intellectual and social movements, or, in other words, a part of national life. The present reviewer belongs to this class of readers, and he therefore fully sympathizes with the author's endeavor to show what attitude the foremost German writers of the nineteenth century took towards the public problems of their day, how far and in what manner their works represent the great political, social, and moral conflicts of the last hundred years, to what extent they contributed to making German history. He is, however, aware that, in order to answer questions like these satisfactorily, two fundamental qualities of criticism are required: a large historical perspective and a keen penetration of individual character. Where the former is absent, the popular background of the historical narrative is bound to remain hazy and indistinct; where the latter is lacking, the part played by individual writers cannot be brought out definitely and justly. It is in these two respects that Professor Coar's book fails to fulfil the expectations raised by its programme of inquiry.

The absence, or at least the insufficiency, of historical perspective in this book is illustrated at the outset by a strange parallel in the first chapter between Schiller and a man whom it seems almost invidious to mention in the same breath with the author of "Wallenstein," the hysterical, fantastic playwright Zacharias Werner. The general thesis of this first chapter is that there was no national life in Germany at the beginning of the nineteenth century, that the mass of the people at that time had only provincial or local interests, that the great writers of the period were cosmopolitans, not patriots. Granted that there is some truth in this often-made assertion, it certainly betrays a singular distortion of vision to illustrate this fact by a contrast between Schiller's "Wilhelm Tell," a drama which is declared to be devoid of national feeling and to have been "inspired by purely academic ideals" (whatever they may be), and Werner's melodramatic piece "Martin Luther." In the third act of this play there occurs a scene in which the Emperor, Charles V., in Worms, on his way to the Diet, sees Luther standing in the street among his followers. While he stops his horse and thoughtfully gazes at the young priest, the imperial sceptre falls from his hands, and is picked up by the Elector of Brandenburg. This cheap theatrical trick of a second-rate playwright seems to Professor Coar of greater national import than the noble picture of free manhood given in "Wilhelm Tell," simply because Schiller refrained from making poetry the handmaid of practical politics. "Schiller," he declares, "could not have conceived such an episode as this. . . . Only a Prussian poet, and one feeling the racial unity of the German lands, could at that time have conceived the thought of a united Germany under Prussian lead, and phrased even in such a passing incident the hope of future generations." It is hardly necessary to vindicate Schiller's patriotism against such flimsy remarks as these; but it may be of interest to quote here a few lines from a recently published sketch by Schiller of a poem on Germany, planned a few years before his death, which throw light on the difference between genuine national feeling and party politics. These are Schiller's words:

"Ihm [*i. e.*, to the German] ist das Höchste bestimmt. Und so wie er in der Mitte von Europas Völkern sich befindet, so ist er der Kern der Menschheit. Er ist erwählt von dem Weltgeist, während des Zeitkampfes an dem ewigen Bau der Menschenbildung zu arbeiten. Daher hat er bisher Fremdes sich angeeignet und es in sich bewahrt. Alles, was Schätzbares bei andern Zeiten und Völkern aufkam, hat er aufbewahrt, es ist ihm unverloren, die Schätze von Jahrhunderten.—Jedes Volk hat seinen Tag der Geschichte, doch der Tag des Deutschen ist die Ernte der ganzen Zeit."

Similar doubts as to the correctness of Professor Coar's historical judgments and as to the truthfulness of the historical setting of his narrative force themselves upon the reader throughout the book. By what stretch of imagination can the poetry of Hölderlin, who after 1806 did not write a single line not indicative of his hopeless insanity, be considered as a reflex of public affairs under the Metternich régime? What sense is there in yoking with each other two poets so utterly dissimilar in temperament, artistic character, and public activity as Platen and Raimund, simply because they both died embittered and at

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variance with their surroundings? How can Anastasius Grün, whose political poetry antedated the Revolution of 1848 by more than a decade, rightfully be made a representative of this very revolution? What possible meaning can be attached to the characterization of Friedrich Hebbel as representing "the victory of democracy over partisanship"? And, in general, what is the meaning of this word "democracy" which is constantly rung in our ears as the one thing needful, as the one principle whose adoption would bring forth the consummation of poetry? Is it the consciousness of the brotherhood of man? or the belief in parliamentary government? or a pantheistic view of the world? or the striving for social justice? One fails to receive a satisfactory answer to this question, and the result is that the whole intellectual background of the narrative remains obscure, so that one is constantly tempted to apply to this book what Lessing said of the representation of the landscape in Haller's "Die Alpen"; "Ich höre in jedem Worte den arbeitenden Dichter; aber das Ding selbst bin ich weit entfernet zu sehen."

A few words must be said about the second fundamental defect of this book, the indistinctness of literary characterization. To gauge literary achievements by their social importance seems to the present reviewer entirely legitimate; he has himself attempted to do something of this sort. But he believes that the social significance of a work of literature is the composite result of the whole variety of its individual traits, its personal bias, its subject-matter, its artistic form, its religious sentiment, its moral import, its political tendency. Undoubtedly, Professor Coar would subscribe to this view; his book contains sufficient evidence that he has striven for comprehensiveness of treatment. But it seems as if certain preconceived and not fully matured philosophical notions had dimmed his sight and prevented him from seeing each writer first by himself, in his own characteristic outline. As a consequence, the book suffers from a marked monotony and diffuseness, which is further heightened by a strangely vague and at times hopelessly obscure language.

The reviewer has laid emphasis upon these defects of Professor Coar's work, not because he thinks it a poor production, but because he thinks it so good that it deserves to be better. The fact cannot be gainsaid that here we have the first attempt in the English language to trace in detail and from a large point of view the intellectual development of Germany in the nineteenth century; and an author who makes his first appearance with such an attempt may well comfort himself with *in magnis voluisse sat est.* But, quite apart from this consideration, it is refreshing and encouraging in the midst of the endless manufacture of textbooks and manuals by college professors to see here a younger member of the craft start out with a work of pronounced individuality and independence of traditional standards. Whatever exceptions may be taken to this book, it will remain a stepping-stone in the progress of serious literary study in this country. Such noteworthy novelists as Willibald Alexis, Friedrich Spielhagen, Gottfried Keller, such dramatists as Otto Ludwig, Friedrich Hebbel, and Anzengruber, such movements as the Nietzschean revolt against accepted canons of morality and as the naturalistic phase of the contemporary drama, are here for the first time exhibited in their relation to the national development as a whole. This is in itself a service of no small weight; it will undoubtedly bear fruit in the spread in this country of a fuller and juster appreciation of recent German literature. And the book as a whole will, we hope, lead to other books similar in scope, but more careful in execution.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bowley, A. L. National Progress in Wealth and Trade since 1882. London: P. S. King & Son. 2s. net.
Bradley, Henry. The Making of English. The Macmillan Co. $1 net.
Collectanea Anglo-Premonstratensia. Vol. I. Edited by Francis A. Gasquet. London: Offices of the Royal Historical Society.
Eggleston, George Cary. Running the River. (Fiction.) A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.
Feuillet's Roman d'un Jeune Homme Pauvre. Edited by James D. Bruner. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Gale, James S. The Vanguard, a Tale of Korea. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Hid in the Heart—Scriptures that a Child of Ten Should Know. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. 50 cents net; postage 5 cents.
Jackson, Margaret Doyle. The Horse-Leech's Daughters. (Fiction.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Matthay, Tobias. Pianoforte Tone-Production. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.60.
Newmarch, Rosa. Henry J. Wood. (Living Masters of Music—I.) London and New York: John Lane. $1 net.
Owen, Henry. Gerald, the Welshman. New ed. London: David Nutt. 3s. 6d. net.
Psychological Year Book. (Selections.) San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co. 50 cents net.
Rowland, Henry C. To Windward. (Fiction.) A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.
Spenle, E. Novalis; Essai sur l'Idéalisme Romantique en Allemagne. (Bibliothèque de la Fondation Thiers. Fascicule II.) Paris: Hachette et Cie.
Steiner, Edward A. Tolstoy, the Man. The Outlook Co. $1.50 net.
Stiles, William Curtis. The Upper Way. Eaton & Mains. $1.
The Cattle-Raid of Cualnge. An old Irish prose-epic, translated by L. Winifred Faraday. London: David Nutt. 4s. net.
The Jewish Encyclopædia. Vol. VI. God-Istria. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
The Philippine Islands, 1493-1898. Vol. XI., 1599-1602. Cleveland, O.: The Arthur H. Clark Co.
Transactions of the Royal Historical Society. New series, Vol. XVII. London: Offices of the Society.
Weir, Harrison. The Poultry Book. Part IX. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Wright, Timothy. The Twentieth Century Money Law. *Peter Eckler. 50 cents.*
Yeats, W. B. The Hour-Glass and Other Plays. (Vol. II. of Plays for an Irish Theatre.) The Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.

READY.
A Notable Scientific Work.
GEOLOGY
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Heads of the Department of Geology and Geography in the University of Chicago; members of the U. S. Geological Survey.
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